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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

TEACHER PERCEPTION OF CURRICULAR CHANGE

by

ⓒ NOEL HARVEY BOAG

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH
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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

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DEDICATION

To my wife Anne, daughter Anne-Louise, and son Guy - whose understanding, support and sacrifice made the study possible.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to describe and explain two teachers' perspectives of a curricular change proposal. A perspective was a combination of beliefs and behaviours composed of: a set of ideas describing the character of the situation, actions, and criteria of judgment. This study described the actions and statements of the teachers as they responded to and implemented a curricular change proposal over a period of three months. Through the method of participant observation and interviewing, the study revealed how the teachers interpreted the curricular proposal and how they constructed their actions in implementing it as part of their classroom programs. Three exploratory questions guided the study: (1) How do teachers perceive communications intended to modify or improve their performance? (2) What are the constructs that underlie such teacher perceptions? (3) What is the relationship between these dimensions and the evaluative process by which teachers make decisions regarding the implementation of change in school programs.

The study was based on the theory of symbolic interaction. A premise of this theory is that to understand a subject's world it is necessary to catch the person's process of interpretation. In this study, to catch the process by which the two teachers encountered, interpreted, and ordered their view of the curricular change proposal, the researcher placed himself in the teachers' environments, took a limited role in some classroom activities, and observed the teachers from as many vantage points as possible. Over the course of three months of field work, extensive notes were taken and interviews were held with the teachers. The data were then analyzed on a weekly basis in order to discover patterns and relationships to guide further study. Final analysis was completed following the field work.

Fourteen propositions were identified which revealed the dimensions of the teachers' perceptions of communications intended to modify or improve their performance. It was speculated that the propositions represented a number of constructs and that teacher perceptions generally may range along a continuum for each of these possible dimensions. Two differing patterns of related ideas were revealed as underpinning the teachers' perceptions. These constructs established an interpretive framework and criteria of judgment for their decision-making. To the extent that the teachers judged the change proposal incongruent with the constructs underlying their perceptions there were contradictions in its implementation. It became clear that the teachers interpreted and used the change message in a way that matched their perceptions of their classroom situation.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Purpose of the Study

This study represents an attempt to adopt a more realistic approach to understanding the change process.[1] It is based on the premises that if an effective approach to the implementation of curricular change is to be devised, it must be constructed on a more thorough understanding of the naturally existing mechanisms which operate in school environments[2] and that statements of how change should occur are not very useful in interpreting how classroom teachers actually respond to proposals for curricular change which impinge upon their established habits and practices.[3]

---

[1] Change, it would seem, is increasingly a part of our environment and schools, as social institutions are subject to pressures to reform their curricula. What happens, however, when practical attempts are made to implement innovative programs is not clear. On the one hand, there is a voluminous collection of prescriptive literature that purports to tell practitioners how to accomplish change in school settings; on the other, an extensive body of descriptive studies which indicate that the actual amount of change in schools falls significantly below expectations. It would seem, as Doyle and Ponder (1976) note, that the life histories of innovative programs are, more often than not, records of disappointment and failure. (p. 1)

[2] A proposition developed by Doyle, Walter and Ponder, Gerald A. The practicability ethic in teacher decision-making. Paper presented to the Milwaukee Curriculum Theory Conference, November 12, 1976. The purpose of the paper the authors noted was "not to suggest solutions. It is to map an unfamiliar terrain in order to stimulate research on the ways in which practicing teachers react to change." (p. 4)

Need for the Study

Much of what is known about the decision-making processes which appear to underlie teacher reaction to change proposals has been derived from the literature on innovation projects (Doyle and Ponder, 1976). Although such information has value, it is suggested that there are both general and specific limitations to its utility in understanding response to change processes in schooling. First, as Walker (1976) notes, the literature shows an over-emphasis on, and a bias in favour of, change over stability.[4] Relatedly, the curriculum field has been dominated by an ideal of change premised in terms of a technological rationality (Pinar, 1978b) and what Kliebard (1978) has described as the "bureaucratic model" of curriculum.[5] This image has been at odds with the reality of curriculum, particularly social studies, in local schools (Downey, 1975). Additionally and more specifically, in clarifying and attempting to establish the need for this study, the literature of innovation projects would seem to lack utility, as such projects disturb what tends to be typical of the classroom domain in our system of education (Doyle and Ponder, 1976).

---

[3] There is a large quantity of writings in the educational innovation field. A review is presented by Giacquinta, J. B., The process of organizational change in schools, in Kerlinger, F. N. (Ed.), Review of research in education, Vol. 1, Itasca, Ill.: F. E. Peacock, 1973. A summary and extensive bibliography is provided by Short, E. C., Knowledge production and utilization in curriculum: A special case of the general phenomenon, Review of educational research, Summer 1973, 43. The standard reference works are Havelock, R. Planning for innovation through dissemination and utilization of knowledge, Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, 1969, and a Guide to innovation in education. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, 1970.

Descriptive studies of innovation projects and processes are included in: Goodlad, J. I. and Klein, M. F. Behind the classroom door. Worthington, Ohio: Charles A. Jones, 1970; Gross, N., Giacquinta, J. B. and Bernstein, M. Implementing organizational innovations. New York: Basic Books, 1971; Smith, L. M. and Keith, P. M. Anatomy of educational innovation, New York: Wiley, 1971; and Sarason, S. B. The culture of the school and the problem of change. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1971. These descriptive works are summarized and analyzed in Fullan, M. Overview of the innovative process and the user, Interchange, 1972, 3, 2/3, and Fullan, M. and Pomfret, A. Research on curriculum and instruction implementation, Review of educational research, Winter, 1977, 47.1, 335-397.

Under normal circumstances teachers determine what will happen to students in their classes (Dreeben, 1973). This condition prevails for at least two reasons. First, the hierarchy of the school system does not serve as a direct regulatory line for the communication of decisions designed to influence teachers' classroom activities. With few exceptions, teachers work in relative isolation from supervision or intervention by administrators or colleagues. Second, to a significant extent teachers' activities are characterized by autonomy which appears to minimize the effect of external influence on the classroom. For these reasons Dreeben concludes that, although schools resemble bureaucracies, "the work of teachers can be properly understood only if the non-bureaucratic elements of schools are also identified" (1973, p. 452); teachers are not subject to bureaucratic rule in the substance of their work.[6] Their environment of relative isolation and functional autonomy tends to be disrupted when an innovation project is initiated (Hoyle, 1974). First, some school innovations such as collaborative teaching, collaborative decision-making, open-space schools, ungraded plans, extend beyond the scope of the individual classroom and require the co-operation of groups of teachers. Second, because of the resource commitment necessary to establish such projects, they often attract publicity. Finally, the requirement for formal evaluation which often accompanies such projects increases the information flow concerning teachers' techniques and practices. Such conditions tend in combination to increase visibility for teachers involved in an innovation project. This increased visibility tends to reduce the isolation and autonomy and results in an increase in external control placed over individual teachers. In this manner, innovation projects generate a set of control mechanisms which are typically absent from the teaching environment. Such mechanisms, Doyle and Ponder (1976) argue, tend to increase teacher passivity and suspend normal teacher reactions to change messages or directives. As Fullan (1972) observes, the typical innovation strategy usually turns out to be power-coercive from the point of the user (p. 4).

---

[4] In Walker's (1976) view, "More can be learned about curriculum change by studying the factors that account for stability than from the study of factors associated with change" (p. 298). This study made a careful attempt to be sensitive to both dimensions of teacher decision-making.

[5] Giaquinta (1973) concludes that, "Despite nearly 30 years of writings by social scientists on the willingness of organizational members to change, resistance continues to be treated primarily as a practical difficulty of organizations that require a remedy and not as a social phenomenon requiring systematic inquiry and explanation" (p. 189).

---

[6] It may be noted that Jackson and Belford's (1965) study would suggest that teachers--at least elementary school teachers--derive their satisfaction from the immediacy of the classroom situation and from their autonomy. Also, Jackson (1968) and Lortie (1964) make the claim that the satisfaction of the elementary teacher is mainly to be derived from the art of teaching itself and not to the same degree from the teacher-related activities of curriculum planning and decision-making which is a consequence of a change in autonomy.

In the context of this study, it is argued the innovation literature lacks utility because change projects tend to by-pass teacher decision-making and hence tend to disregard the decision-making processes which underlie teacher reaction to change proposals (Sieber, 1974). This characteristic may account for the fact that little is known about the user of educational innovations. Failure to acknowledge teacher decision-making does not, however, neutralize its impact on change efforts. Although the features of innovation projects may mask the effects of teacher judgment, it would seem that the extent to which an innovation is finally implemented, depends on teacher decisions.[7] This feature may help to explain why schools typically tend to revert to conventional practices as the initial interest and intensity of the project begins to decline.

Regardless of the actual consequences of teacher decisions, the above analysis would suggest that the innovation literature should be used with caution as a data source for investigating teacher decision-making processes in response to change or improvement messages. For this reason, it is suggested that teacher judgments under the normal environment conditions of isolation and autonomy are a legitimate and important subject for investigation.

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[7] Fullan (1972) for example, places special emphasis on the need to study the users' perspective in change research, a view that is endorsed by Fullan and Pomfret (1978). Sieber (1974) maintains that existing research "fails to penetrate the mental world of the practitioner in order to reflect definition of needs, problem-solving patterns, knowledge translation strategies, criteria for appraisal of opinions, perceptions of experts, and other outsiders, and the like" (p. 66).

Statement of the Problem

The focus of this study is the decision-making processes which appear to underlie teacher reaction to change proposals. The main issue addressed by the study is: What are the dimensions that underlie teacher reactions to change proposals and their perceptions of attempting to implement a change proposal in the classroom?

The following questions are derived from the initial problem statement:

How do teachers perceive communications intended to modify or improve their performance?

What are the constructs that underlie such teacher perceptions?

What is the relationship between these dimensions and the evaluative process by which teachers make decisions regarding the implementation of change in classroom programs.

Given the nature of the research design, the above questions are considered as a set of "working hypotheses" (Geer, 1964). They are not a set of experimental hypotheses to be directionally and statistically proven. Rather, they represent a set of statements generated partly from prior knowledge of the field to be studied, partly from prior observations, and from the conceptual and theoretical position established by Doyle and Ponder (1976).

Theoretical Framework

This study is based on a complex of factors related to an order of thinking and to a method of studying human activity that views human behavior--what people say and do--as a product of how people interpret their world. The particular concept utilized is the symbolic interactionist perspective as outlined by Howard Becker (1961), Herbert Blumer (1969), Blanche Geer (1964), and Everette C. Hughes (1958).

According to these theorists, people are constantly in a process of interpretation and definition as they move from one situation to another. All situations consist of the self, others and their actions, and physical objects. Any situation has meaning only through each person's interpretation and definition of it. The individual judges the suitability of the interpretation to personal actions, makes decisions on the basis of the judgment, and then constructs the actions of the personal "self" according to the decision. Blumer describes this as a process of interpretation or acting on the basis of symbols (1969, p. 141). As he notes, whatever the action in which he is engaged, the individual

> ...proceeds by pointing out to himself the divergent things which have to be taken into account in the course of his action. He has to note what he wants to do and how he is to do it. He has to take account of the demands, the expectations, the prohibitions, and the threats as they may arise in the situation in which he is acting. His action is built up

> step by step through a process of such self-indication. The human individual pieces together and guides his action by interpreting their significance for his prospective action (Blumer, 1969, p. 141).

This process is distinctive from normative psychological states:

> Environmental pressures, external stimuli, organic drives, wishes, attitudes, feelings, ideas, and their like do not cover or explain the process of self-indication. The process of self-indication stands over against them in that the individual points out to himself and interprets the appearance or expression of such things, noting a given social demand that is made on him (Blumer, 1969, p. 142).

It is by self-indication then, that the individual guides his choice of actions by interpreting their potential significance in terms of his definition of the situation.

The manner in which a person consistently defines a succession of situations depends on personal perspective (Shibutani, 1967). This consistent definition is an

> ...ordered view of one's world--what is taken for granted about the attributes of various objects, events, and human nature. It is an order of things remembered and things expected as well as things actually perceived, an organized conception of what is plausible and what is possible; it constitutes the matrix through which one perceives his environment (Shibutani, 1976, p. 161).

In this way, for the interactionist, a perspective is a socially derived interpretation of that which is encountered which then serves as a basis for the actions to be constructed (Janesick, 1977). The person's perspective is a combination of beliefs and behaviors continually modified by social interaction.

In response to proposals for curricular change, the teacher acts and thinks in a particular way. In the terms of the interactionist, teachers develop a change perspective, a consistent way of thinking and acting in response to change proposals. This perspective enables teachers to make sense of, to interpret, and to construct their actions in response to and in the process of implementing a curriculum change proposal.

Assumptions of the Study

This study is based on a complex of factors related to its theoretical framework.[8] Simply stated, it is assumed that:

1. The relationship between researcher and subject is entirely voluntary on the part of both.
2. The researcher is able to depict himself as an outsider to the setting of the study and in so doing achieves conceptual distance from its perspectives and vocabularies.
3. The researcher is able to achieve empathetic understanding and to reproduce in his own mind the feelings, motives, and thoughts behind the actions of the subjects of the study.

---

[8] The properties are many and embedded in social psychology. Schatzman and Strauss (1973) suggest four which are centrally significant:

"(i) Man can take a perspective on himself, and act towards himself.

(ii) In diverse situations, he can simultaneously hold several perspectives on himself as well as on others and events--even seemingly contradictory ones, then in new situations create still other perspectives.

(iii) Personal perspectives are social in origin and emanate from definitions of countless social situations and processes in which man finds himself and with which he can identify.

(iv) Man presents himself with perspectives and definitions that become (some of the) conditions for his own actions; therefore the "forces" which impel him to act are substantially of his own making" (Schatzman and Strauss, 1975, p. 5).

Methodology

Given the characteristics of the study and its theoretical bases, it was necessary to select a methodology that would utilize direct observation and provide extensive data that would meet the position of symbolic interaction which requires the researcher "to catch the process of interpretation through which they (the subjects or actors) construct their actions" (Blumer, 1969, p. 145). This process, he notes,

> ...is not to be caught merely by turning to conditions which are antecedent to the process. Such antecedent conditions are helpful in understanding the process insofar as they enter into it, but...they do not constitute the process merely by inferring its nature from the overt action which is its product...Since the interpretation is being made by the acting unit in terms of objects designated and appraised, meanings acquired, and decisions made, the process has to be seen from the standpoint of the acting unit (Blumer, 1969, p. 145).

Participant observation was judged to meet these criteria as it provides a combination of data collecting methods involving genuine social interaction in the field with the subjects of the study, direct observation of relevant events, formal and informal interviewing and the collection of relevant documents and artifacts (McCall and Simon, 1969). It is a process by which

> The participant observer gathers data by participating in the daily life of the (subjects) he studies. He watches the people he is studying to see what situations they ordinarily meet and how they behave in them. He enters into conversation with...the participants in these situations and discovers their interpretations of the events he has observed (Becker, 1958, p. 652).

Organization of the Dissertation

The evidence clearly indicates that, at least in part, the failure to match promise and achievement in the context of innovating school programs relates to the limitations of traditional curriculum theory and its application to curriculum development, evaluation and research. In particular, issue is taken with the manner in which theorists have tended to accept the premises of a technological rationality and of what Kliebard (1978) has described as the "bureaucratic model" of curriculum. As well as there being some problems general to the issue of curriculum and its implementation by teachers, there are others more specific to social studies and to the historical process by which it came to be included in the program of elementary schools. The problems are elaborated in the body of the study.

First, Chapter 2 examines problems of curriculum reform in the context of changing perspectives of curriculum theory and its relationship to classroom practice; the changing bases and methodologies of social studies curriculum and instruction are then examined, giving attention first to the wider scene and then to the situation in Alberta elementary schools. The research methodology and procedures utilized in this study are described in Chapter 3. Chapter 4 presents the change proposal, the setting in which it is to be implemented, and a description from two practitioners' perspectives of the process of implementation of an innovative curricular change proposal.

These three sources are then examined in terms of their compatibilities, consistencies, tensions and contradictions in an attempt to link the accounts and actions of those who have to solve practical problems of innovation with the speculation of theorists. From that examination an attempt is made in Chapter 5 to build up a view of innovation that is situation specific to two classrooms but which may be illuminating to prospective users of new programs.

CHAPTER 2

PROBLEMS OF CURRICULUM REFORM

Curriculum Theory and the Process of Change

Curriculum theory if it is to be effective, must ultimately be of some practical value. It must assist in the planning of what experiences will be made available to pupils. Such planning, once implemented, by definition implies change. The nature of change, the process by which it is achieved and its influence on the quality of experience provided for individuals and society has, in recent years, focused new attention on curriculum as an area of critical reflection and theorizing in education. Partly as a result of societal pressures for reform, partly as a result of the apparent failure of the curriculum and materials development projects that occurred in the late 1950s and the 1960s, particularly in the United States and the United Kingdom, and partly as a result of the work of certain curriculum theorists, the literature has evidenced new ways of organizing thinking in the field of curriculum. There is a growing realization that the conception of an "ends-means" process (Goodlad, 1966; Mager, 1962; Popham, 1969; Taba, 1962; Tanner and Tanner, 1975; Tyler, 1949; Wheeler, 1967; Zais, 1976) is inappropriate in the context of education, and that curriculum development is not a matter of simply dealing with hard facts, clear aims or established policies, in the manner of a more mechanical management theory. In particular, the work of theorists[9] such as Eisner, Schwab and Walker (1974), Goodlad (1975), Schwab (1970), Walker (1971) in the United States and Hirst (1974), Jenkins (1976), Owen (1973), Richmond (1971), Skilbeck (1971), and Stenhouse (1975) in the United Kingdom, has focused on the need for curriculum theory and development to be sensitive to the wider concerns of culture and society. Their approach recognizes that curriculum can be planned and some of its outcomes can be foreseen but, as Owen states,

> ...it differs from other kinds of development in rather obvious ways. Changes on the whole are not a matter of design, are not activities to which a known end can be hoped for, nor are they matters of startling and radical discovery which are likely to change men's view of the world at large (1974, p. 42).

Expressed more simply, there is a growing awareness that the curriculum process involves people affecting people--teachers, pupils, parents and community. The curriculum from this perspective is

> ...not merely a facet of the organization of an institution, it is a decisive part of the culture of a living community, whether this community be that of a single school, neighbourhood or whole society. Thus, development of the curriculum means, inter alia, developing the school culture and re-thinking the values and forms of school community life (Skilbeck, 1976, p. 22).

This broader view of curriculum provides a shift in emphasis and understanding of the pattern of authority and responsibility as a determinant for seeking curriculum reform. In particular, it rejects the ideas of the school as a test site and of a division between theory and practice. It supports the recognition of the existing state of practice as a source of theoretical ideas and problems; it stresses the importance of effective curriculum development involving the teacher, the pupil, the parent and the community both in framing its goals and in facilitating its implementation. It recognizes that the

---

[9] This list is not intended to be comprehensive but rather to note that, at particular times and in different settings, a number of writers have provided fresh insights as to the nature of curriculum. Classifications of curriculum theorists and their perspectives have been presented by Walker (1976) and Pinar, (1975), (1978a), (1978b). Pinar (1978b) notes that "...the reconceptualization is a reaction to what the field has been, and what it is seen to be at the present time" (p. 205).

> ...testing ground of a theory is not its conceptual clarity, not its ability to predict outcomes, criteria we have inherited from a narrow conception of philosophizing and a dubious scientism, but how such ideas are transformed into action in the practice of teachers (Young, 1975, p. 136).

Geertz elaborated this assumption in referring to the need to attend to behavior with some exactness

> ...because it is through the flow of behavior--or more precisely, social action--that cultural forms find articulation. They find it as well,...in various sorts of artifacts, the various states of consciousness; but these draw their meaning from the role they play in an on-going pattern of life, not from any intrinsic relationships they bear to one another...whatever, or wherever, symbols 'in their own terms' may be, we gain empirical access to them by inspecting events, not by arranging abstract entities into unified patterns (Geertz, 1975, p. 19).

Schwab (1970) expresses the view that theories are inadequate to tell us what to do with human beings. He suggests that the "stuff" of theories is an abstract or idealized representation of real things and, therefore, he questions their utility as the basis for the framing of curriculum which, in action, treats real things, real acts, real teachers, and real children. He argues that the awareness of the practical will lead to a more useful way of improving future ways of doing things

> ...as a basis for beginning to know what we are doing, what we are not doing, and to what effect--what changes are needed, which needed changes can be instituted with what costs or economies and how they can be effected with minimum tearing of the remaining fabric of educational effort (Schwab, 1970, p. 62).

The proposition implicit to such views is that gaining knowledge of both human behavior and the process of change is so formidable a task that it is extremely difficult, if not impossible, to predict in advance of implementation just what will be the effect of curriculum revision. The recognition of this complexity tends to be symptomatic of the reconceptualization of curriculum theory and its perspectives: of the distinctions being made between the visible curriculum and the hidden curriculum, between the intended and the effective curriculum; that is, between the formalized plan and the experiences of the child in school. Such distinctions in the language of curriculum tend to reflect the influence of sociological theory and, in more general terms, of all those theories which distinguish between what appears to be the case and what really is the case, or between the views of those at the top of the hierarchies and those lower down.[10] This growing awareness of a reality behind appearances has tended to change educational consciousness to the wider perspectives of contemporary thought about culture and society.

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[10] Skilbeck (1976) for example, lists four contemporary sources of ideas about curriculum theory: (1) curriculum theorists, (2) psychological, social and political theories, (3) project experience of the kind sponsored by the Nuffield Foundation and Schools Council in Britain and the National Science Foundation in the USA, (4) Marxist theories of intellectual action (p. 20). An additional example would be the neo-Marxist policy of radical social change and its associated educational theory elaborated by Paulo Friere (1972).

These broader conceptions have required changes in thinking and practice appropriate to the newer conceptions of curriculum, changes which take account of understanding from related fields but which do not subsume curriculum theory to other kinds of theory. The more mechanistic and often reductionist approaches to curriculum development and research have been brought into question with the newer focus more directly on qualitative elements (Eisner, 1967, 1969, 1977, 1978; Macdonald-Ross, 1973; Sockett, 1976; Stenhouse, 1975; and others).

Traditional Approaches

In the period of the curriculum reform movements of the late 1950's and the 1960's considerable emphasis was placed on school teacher activity being precisely and specifically goal-oriented. This emphasis utilized a rational model of theory which set purpose before activity and involved the clarification of objectives as a prerequisite for action (Goodlad, 1975). The emphasis was on the measurement of product rather than on the understanding of the dynammic. It tended to ignore the learning milieu and to support the existence of a research climate that favoured accuracy of measurement and generality of theory, a tradition based on the theory and methods of mental testing and field experimentation of the kind mainly used by agricultural botanists (Hamilton, 1976).

The implementation of such "objective" based models of curriculum tended to be guided by a theory which suffered from a similarly narrow and limited perspective. Models of change were utilized from studies in technological areas, marketing and rural sociology (MacDonald and Walker, 1976). Curriculum development, at times, tended to be equated simply as a form of organizational change (Skilbeck, 1976). In consequence, discussion and inquiry focused on social relations, the management of conflict, power relations and the provision of resources (Hoyle, 1970). The view has been expressed that course implementation was geared to having teachers change their ways, either by instructing them to do so, by persuading them to adopt different values or by proving that the desired alternative was preferable (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 1970: Fullan, 1972, pp. 1-46). The language of curriculum tended to be equated with the language of change (Skilbeck, 1976): coping with change, support for change, change agents and change climate. Preoccupation with change tended to produce the belief that innovation is itself an appropriate goal of education.[11] Curriculum issues, such as balance and sequence, tend to be distorted or evaded altogether in attempts to treat educational processes as a kind of technological change.[12]

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[11] Curriculum development is always a process of change, but the purpose of some curriculum development activities may be to resist some changes in society, to consolidate previous educational change, or perhaps, to deflect some undesirable changes in education (see Nisbet, 1974 for some excellent examples of the latter undesirable changes).

[12] As House (1979) notes, a rationalized model of innovation in agriculture and industry was persuasive. "The success of scientific agriculture and technology (man on the moon in 1969) validated the public image" (p. 2).

Historically, such viewpoints of curriculum development and evaluation have focused primarily upon precise specifications of objectives, behavioural measurement of achievement and statistical analysis of pre-tests and post-tests. Such procedures tend to assume a state of consensus in the establishment of educational priorities or, at least, a homogeneity of opinion among participants as to the nature of appropriate curriculum. The research, development and diffusion model exemplifies a linear process with each part a step toward an ultimate agreed-upon goal in education (Goodlad, 1975). It assumes a rational sequence of activities, massive planning, division of labour, high development costs, and a passive consumer who will adopt the innovation (Havelock, 1971). Typically, curriculum developers have assumed that the educational system acts in a mechanized fashion, so that

> ...ideas once fed into it from the top (inputs: structured methods, materials and so forth) will be processed through various channels and arrive finally at the 'grass roots' at the bottom (output: school classrooms) (Gleeson, 1979, p. 195).

Such a hierarchical conception of curriculum development not only assumes a split between 'experts' and classroom teachers, but also implies an ascendancy of curriculum 'theory' over classroom 'practice'. Hence, Bartholomew (1976) argues that such unquestioned assumptions about hierarchy take the rationality of educational theory for granted, presupposing the superiority of its progressive and liberal status over the illiberal and inimical influences of the school. In this way, educational 'theory' attains leadership over practice, a leadership which appears to ignore the ways in which such practice might inform theory (Reid, 1978), and thereby fails to consider the ways in which teachers may have important things to say about curricular innovation and change.

Societal Change

More recently, the type and quality of educational provision has been affected and has affected a whole complex of changes (Barcan, 1976; Fitzgerald, 1976) which have been paralleled in a somewhat similar fashion in the developed nations of the Western hemisphere (Goodlad, 1975). These changes have been marked by a shift in values and

> ...the transition from an age in which belief in absolutes and the puritan ethic was widespread to one in which, for most, man was the measure, truth was relative. The social ethic brought with it a blurring of standards, a suspicion of tradition, a distrust...of standards and traditions (Barcan, 1976, p. 202).

Associated with this shift in values there has been a growing and exceedingly varied dissatisfaction with schools. This criticism has tended to focus sharply on the performance of mathematics and the language arts but also reflects parents' demands for the schools to do much more than they do and finds expression in a proliferation of ideas to improve teaching. In curriculum planning, development and evaluation, these societal pressures have been precipitated into, and are interrelated with, the situation in the primary school where central authorities have tended to draw back from earlier practices of detailed prescription in favour of, at most, prescription in more general terms; there has been an increase in the level of responsibility being accepted by schools. This movement, towards what has been described as more school-based decision-making, would seem to have focused public concern more sharply on the particular school and to have made the individual teacher a more apparent subject for criticism.

In the context of program development, in particular, the school and its teachers appear to be placed in a dilemma of confusing demands: the personal needs and aspirations of the individual, a wide range of social possibilities and needs including the requirements of society for particular knowledge, understanding and skills, the varying lifestyles sought by particular groups and the demand posed by their concept of education. Such demands appear to have paralleled the elaboration of broader, more perceptive approaches to curriculum and to be symptomatic of the concern that schools should be increasingly sensitive to the realities of the broader social milieu; there has been a growing realization that complexity and, on occasion, contention are more typical of reality than is suggested by a "means - ends" model of curriculum development. The recognition is that, in any pluralist society, educational goals[13] and needs are sufficiently diverse that very few specific innovations should or can be universally implemented in a standardized form. Such events and developments apparently have in a normative sense provided a basis for questioning the credibility of existing models of educational reform and for justification of a newer realism in education research.

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[13] As Fullan (1972) notes, such goals are characterized by a fairly high level of generality "particularly many of the recent goals such as self-direction, critical thinking, capacity to gather, organize and analyze new material, ability to recognize and choose among alternatives, self-confidence and moral reasoning (p. 2)" which requires continuous involvement, choice and commitment on the part of the teacher and student and makes inappropriate standardized or programmed innovation.

Research Views of the Teacher

It has been argued that generally the process of planned curriculum change has emphasized the importance of the product (the innovative program) on the assumption of a common, rather narrow rationality that has tended to view the subject (the teacher) as a passive recipient of change. This process tends to ignore the values and goals of users and to view curriculum theory, curriculum research, development and implementation as focusing on positivistic prescription. It assumes that the classroom situation is essentially logical and predictable, and that the aim of educational research is to be able to explain, control, and predict social phenomena in a technological or instrumental sense.[14]

Such a view of human behavior has, in recent years, frequently been criticized as being incomplete. Van Manen (1977) describes it as "pseudo natural"

> ...a one-dimensional world that produced knowledge of a certain kind...(but) cannot deal with the issue of worthwhileness of educational objectives or with the quality of educational experience (p. 209).

This is a view shared by Roszak (1969) who speaks of the "objectifying and dehumanizing" attitude that underlies the scientific-technical approach and the manner in which

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[14] Characteristics of the four most frequently used approaches in contemporary sociological studies include: functional analysis, power conflict analysis, symbolic interaction analysis, and systems analysis.

> ...cultural pre-occupation with objectivity functions as a state of being...(which) grips us subliminally in all we say, feel and do. (Theodore Roszak, The making of a counter culture, New York: Doubleday, 1969. Cited by Van Manen, 1977, p. 207).

A further, but related criticism of what has been described as scientific positivism is that it views scientists (as opposed to the subjects) or, in the context of this study, curriculum developers (as opposed to classroom teachers) as the primary sources of knowledge and encourages them to trust their own senses and logic more than that of teachers. Bruyn (1966) in discussing this point, describes how in traditional social science research it is customary to acknowledge, for example, that feelings and thoughts exist, but not to acknowledge that the interpretations of subjects should have any central importance. In particular in the context of the curriculum change process the top-down strategy tends to negate the legitimacy of a "diversity of alternatives" and the assumption that different user groups may have different objectives or priorities at any given point of time (Fullan, 1972). Typically, studies of change ignore users' perspectives and tend to ignore or stop short of measuring the consequences of implementing innovation. Too often, as Fullan notes (1972), there appears to be a lack of consideration or awareness that in attempting to introduce new roles such possibilities may impinge upon existing patterns, relationships, roles and expectations that are important to users.

Furthermore, as Sieber (1972) and Doyle and Ponder (1976) note, the literature contains some inherent assumptions about teachers as recipients of curriculum change. Most models of the change process emphasize the intellectual processes which ought to determine the direction and course of curriculum change. The image presented of the teacher is that of the rational adopter. Ideally, as a user, the teacher is one who systematically follows a set of problem-solving steps which include such activities as problem identification, data search, deliberation, implementation, and evaluation. Change stragegies designed around this image tend to stress the importance of information in stimulating and effecting educational change. Thus, the rational teacher needs only to be informed about the best method, for example, of teaching social studies, and current practices will be adapted accordingly. As Sieber (1972) notes, the teacher obtains gratification from a careful adjustment of means to clear-cut objectives and is, therefore, constantly alert to information that promises to increase efficiency by predicting the outcomes of alternative behaviours. By implication, such a teacher is invulnerable to the opinions of the peer group, the ideologies of the occupational group, all values encountered, or any features of the environment that would influence goal-oriented behavior (Sieber, 1972, p. 364). Generally, it could be said that university courses, curriculum consultants, and in-service programs tend to rely heavily upon information dissemination and deliberation to modify classroom practice. Moreover, a common response to the failure of strategies constructed around this image of the teacher, is to implement programs designed to achieve "user development"--to instruct teachers to "deliberate rationally" (Connelly, 1972). As Sarason has commented,

> ...if there is any one principle common to efforts at change, it is that one effects change by telling people what is the 'right' way to act and think (Sarason, 1971, p. 193).

A second, more pessimistic image, perceives the teacher as a stone-age obstructionist. Attention is drawn to the traditional beliefs which appear to pervade most teacher discussions, to the non-technical training of the majority of teachers, and to the problems inherent in attempting to change adult behavior patterns (Glass, 1971; Goodlad, Klein, et al., 1970). Change processes built on this image seek ways to neutralize or bypass the teacher as an obstacle to educational improvement. The image is embodied in the attempt of the national curriculum projects of the 1960's to make innovations teacher-proof and in the idea of the programmed instruction movement. It is characterized by the tendency of curriculum reformers to view teachers as resistant, incapable or unwilling to change (Fullan, 1972).

How closely such assumptions portray the reality of teacher response to change proposals would seem speculative. Teachers, as well as most other people, do not appear to conform to the idealized model of "rational" behaviour (Jackson, 1968; Taylor, 1970). As for the pessimistic image, it appears that such a view, to a significant extent, reflects a lack of understanding of classroom settings and outlooks (Jackson and Belford, 1965; Sieber, 1974) and a narrowness that has to do with researchers "almost total absorption with the goal of improving practice and discovering better techniques"

(Jackson and Kieslar, 1977, p. 15). Furthermore, it would seem that both images have been drawn utilizing the tools of a research methodology which tends to objectify the subjects and to ignore both the complexity and unity of human behavior in the classroom. The view is from the vantage point of the interventionist: a view that

> ...fails to penetrate the mental world of the practitioner in order to reflect definition of needs, problem-solving patterns, knowledge translation strategies; criteria for appraisal of options, perceptions of experts and other outsiders and the like (Sieber, 1974, p. 66).

It would appear that scientific empiricism has not been totally adequate as a means of discovering the "essence" of behavior response to proposals for educational change. Possibly the limitations of our schemes for research into human behaviour derive in part from the "artificial" nature of the conceptions of reality upon which they are thought to be based. The problem may very well be that aspects of educational experience which are critical to understanding the process of educational change are not "knowable" through traditional methods of inquiry, and if an understanding is to be gained, an alternative method of inquiry needs to be utilized presuming a conception of reality that is different from that which has traditionally been accepted as "true". In addressing this problem it was resolved in the setting of this study to adopt what has been described as a qualitative and interpretive mode of inquiry that seeks subjective understanding of human behavior in contrast to the more objective, positivistic concern for facts or causes.

Perspectives of Social Studies Curriculum and Instruction

The preceeding discussion has posited that generally theory, as applied to curriculum development and evaluation, has in the past tended to lack utility; it has tended to focus on intended outcomes and to ignore unanticipated consequences in attempting to achieve managed and predictable change. It was suggested that a more flexible, qualitative, and naturalistic approach to inquiry would increase the likelihood of developing theory for understanding classrooms and teaching. It was particularly emphasized that the school as a social system, the existing state of practice, and the subjective involvement of the individual teacher are significant aspects of the innovative process.

In this section it is argued, with particular reference to the teaching of social studies, that the literature evidences viewpoints that would appear to be disparate from, or at least insensitive to, the complexity of curriculum and to the context of schools, teachers, classes and pupils. Moreover, such viewpoints tend to be characterized by what might be best described as an ameliorative orientation; a concept of curriculum change or "improvement" of schools which accepts, as it is, the existing curriculum structure (Pinar, 1978b).

This review is not to attempt an exhaustive survey or critical analysis of educational theories but, to establish in a descriptive sense, that such disparities can be identified. It is also argued that, in a normative sense, these views in the form of various movements and sponsorships have been promoted with a concern for achieving a consensus or uniformity of practice. What has occurred is something of a pathology of theory, methodology and research of citizenship education.

Distinctions between theory and practice would appear to pervade the literature of social studies education and, while such distinctions may merely point to the fact that some theories are more developed than others, the perceived dichotomy tends to point up the existence of what seem to be anomalous viewpoints in the field. Leadership in the form of educational/intellectual groups (academics, educationists, professional administrators) tends to prescribe, on the basis of research findings and theoretical formulations, appropriate action for schools and teachers. Teachers, on the other hand, and in a less public way, would appear to be more responsive to immediate classroom concerns and more likely to ignore educational research findings (Shaver, 1978).[15] Leadership, the literature would suggest, has been less concerned with the study of curricular practices and more concerned with the application to schools of concepts and principles of what ought to be occurring in the implementation of social studies curriculum and instruction. This is not to suggest that educationists are unconcerned with school programs, for the evidence is quite to the contrary.

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[15] Jackson (1968) provides an excellent insight into the place theory has in the world of an American elementary school teacher. Jackson interviewed teachers to see how their talk reflected life in classrooms and found that their language revealed four aspects of conceptual simplicity: an uncomplicated view of causality; an intuitive, rather than rational, approach to classroom events; an opinionated, as opposed to an open-minded, stance when confronted with alternative teaching practices; a narrowness in the working definitions assigned to abstract views. He does note however that: "It must be remembered, of course, that the impulses and intuitive hunches of most of these teachers had been tempered by years of practical experience. Thus, the basis of their action might be much more rational than their self reports would lead us to believe" (p. 145).

Educationists, particularly in the United States but also in Canada and other western societies, have expressed a continuing and considerable concern at the apparent disparity that exists between what is advocated by 'leadership' in social studies education and what takes place in schools and classrooms (Downey, 1975; Fair, 1972; Gross, 1977; Jarolimek, 1974; Lawton, 1973; Whitehead, 1973). This view is supported by speculation, comment and some research that what is written in the professional literature and what is being done by the most innovative teachers may not necessarily be describing widespread prevailing practice (Goodlad, 1970). In a similar fashion, from the viewpoint of research concern has been expressed that theory remains ahead of performance (Gross, 1972), and

> ...the great bulk of research in social studies had had minimal impact (on school programs) and...seldom has curricular change really followed on the result of research projects (Gross, 1972, p. 559).

Many studies and reviews of research have been undertaken in the United States (Cox and Cousins, 1965; Cox, Johnson and Payette, 1965; Dimond, 1960; Fair, 1965; Grannis, 1970; Gross, 1972; Hunkins, Ehman, Hahn, Martorella, Tucker, 1977; Johnson, Payette and Cox, 1968; Massialas, 1969; Metcalf, 1963; Price, 1964; Shaver and Larkins, 1973), but in the view of Shaver and Larkins (1973) they tend to focus on expert opinion and have not been significant in affecting classroom practice (p. 1244). More recently, Hunkins (1977) seems adamant, however, that "...in our current functioning in the schools we are not using our current research base as much as we could or should" (Hunkins, 1977, p. 196). He concludes that "practitioners still need to be convinced of the relevance of and need for research" (Hunkins, 1977, p. 196). Wiley (1977) in a review of prior reviews noted that "Many reviewers have expressed concern over the lack of a cumulative research base in social studies/social science education" (p. 165), and "little or no research has focused on questions about the relative merits of different kinds of content (e.g. social science, public issues, chronological history) in achieving the goals of social studies" (p. 169). She concludes:

> ...social studies/social science education research (affectiveness and efficiency of instructional methods and techniques) appears to be fairly chaotic, at least from the perspective of extant reviews, both comprehensive and special focus. Although a large portion of research falls under this heading, this research appears to have yielded few conclusions that one can endorse with much confidence and few guidelines for practitioners (Wiley, 1977, p. 17).

Shaver (1978) believes that "there is generally a lack of consistent cumulative, definitive research findings upon which to make curricular/instructional prescriptions in social studies education (1978, p. 9).[16]

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[16] Connelly (1972) notes that research has been of little benefit to curriculum development. A major reason for this situation, he states, is the fact that research and curriculum development are commonly seen to stand in a deductive applied relationship. The effect of this situation is to tend to use research in ways that are inappropriate to curriculum. One of these is to treat research findings as if they were prescriptive of school practice. This view ignores the fact that while research can describe existing or controlled conditions, the descriptions do not amount to accounts of what is ideal or best in particular circumstances. A second misuse of research, he believes, is its indiscriminate application to cur-

Despite the evidence that teachers would appear to be losing little in decision-making power by their inattention to research and the doubts cast on its appropriateness to any particular situation (Connelly, 1972, p. 175), the disparity perceived by educationists between theory and classroom practice has tended to focus in a critical manner on the curricula / instruction of elementary schools. Leaders in the field have been metaphorical in their criticism of the work of the teacher. Social studies curriculum and instruction has been described as: "a body without a spirit, a corpse made of lifeless information,...a 'spook' all spirit without body" (Preston, 1950); "curriculum's foggy bottom" (Ploghoft, 1965); like Alice's 'wonderland' (Ploghoft and Shuster, 1971); and a 'large pond where the borders are not clearly defined nor is the water particularly clear" (Whitehead, 1973). More recently, and perhaps more realistically, social studies has been described "as an iceberg, with the tip - i.e. the activity - showing above the surface of the ocean, but with the mass of the iceberg - that is the great majority of...schools and social studies teachers going on as before--largely unobservable and/or unobserved" (Shaver, 1978, p. 4), or "as a deep lake with the wind rippling the

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riculum developments guided by widely differing conceptions. Research and curriculum development operate out of certain conceptions of, for example, the learner or the subject matter, and research is applicable to curriculum development only under the conditions that the conceptions of each are similar. He also notes that a third misuse of research in curriculum development is to treat individual theories and individual lines of research as if they applied to all aspects of their subject. Following Schwab (1970), it may be noted that these theories and lines of research represent only one of several starting points for viewing curriculum and, furthermore, that there are competing theories and competing lines of research within any one starting point (Connelly, 1972, p. 175).

surface. The innovations do ripple the observable surface of social studies education, but the great body of schooling below the surface remains largely undisturbed" (Shaver, 1978, p. 4).

The implications of such insights and perspectives would seem to be that, to a significant extent, teacher behaviors fail to contribute to the achievement of reasonable and recognizable patterns of social studies curricular instruction (Doyle and Ponder, 1975); and, moreover, that the failure to implement acceptable programs can be equated with teacher resistance, incompetence or unwillingness to change established habits and practices (Fullan, 1972, p. 3). In other words, teachers should adjust their behavior to external models derived from contemporary research and education-related theory; the product (the innovative curricular program) is always of greater importance than the user or the user system (Fullan, 1972); innovation in itself is the criterion of effective performance (Hanvey, 1971). The metaphors illuminate[17] and tend to objectivy what it means to be a teacher: in the extreme to be one devoid of the capacity to feel, think and make judgments based on experience (Berlak, 1977). The evidence suggests that programs based on externally derived models of curriculum development, particularly when implemented in a 'top down' fashion, have tended to experience difficulties across school programs (Fullan and Pomfret, 1977). In the case of social studies, such difficulties would seem to have been extenuated by what has been described as the ambiguous nature of the field (Shaver and Larkins, 1973). Shaver and Larkins also note that, whereas other curricular areas such as mathematics or science have problems defining a role in relation to general education, the content if not the methods of teaching the discipline are considered to be legitimately defined by scholars. No such authority is apparent in social studies.[18] The term originated in citizenship education[19] and currently there is agreement by educationists that this is "a proper goal--perhaps the proper goal" (Morrissett, 1979, p. 12)--but the nature of social studies has been and continues to be, debated. Also continuing is a "deep concern that social studies desperately needs a clear definition of its objectives, its methods and its content and that such a definition is lacking" (Morrissett, 1979, p. 12). Educationists have attempted in a somewhat isolated, objective manner to define the subject in terms of achieving a commonality, if not a uniformity, encompassing both theory and practice. They have related social science knowledge, the transmission of values and the teaching of inquiry to the central goal of citizenship education (Hunt and Metcalf, 1968; Oliver, 1957; Oliver and Shaver, 1966; Shaver, 1967; Tom, 1970). Social studies has been defined by some as simplified social science; others have accepted it as being an integration of the social sciences. Some have believed that social studies is the social sciences, whilst others have argued its significance in terms of instruction in patriotism and value inculcation (Barr, 1970).[20] Each viewpoint has secured some support, with the result that the term has been used to describe curricula that are basically different in relation to the selection and organization of content and the nature of the objectives they are designed to achieve. Issue is not taken with this diversity which, to a degree, reflects societal pressures and priorities, but rather with the manner in which such definitions appear to be formulated in isolation from educational practice in schools, yet are then promoted as persuasively prescriptive of what social studies should be.

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[17] Cheverst (1972) notes that ultimate values can only be expressed metaphorically for there is no way of talking about the state of man which doesn't involve analogical reference to some other category. The metaphor, it would seem, represents perhaps the only way we have of talking about the things that really matter in education.

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[18] As Shaver has observed (1967): "other subject areas, such as English, also claim a role in citizenship education. Undoubtedly they have an impact. Yet each has a specified area of concern--e.g. language skills, mathematical skills, which presents its own focus for instruction, as well as problems of curriculum selection. In each case citizenship education....is of tangential, if not incidental, interest. Only social studies educators have consistently averred this as a central direct matter of professional concern" (p. 589).

[19] Its purpose was first officially defined by the Committee on Social Studies which was part of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education appointed by the (United States) National Education Commission in 1913. It was defined as the conscious and constant cultivation of good citizenship (Bureau of Education, 1916). As Engle (1970) notes, it rejected the teaching of formal disciplines in favour of the principles of immediacy and utility in the instruction of the citizen (p. 281).

This definitional concern is also evident in recent attempts to develop conceptual models of social studies. Brubaker (1969), for example, identified two major ideological positions, one of which he labelled the "good citizenship" position, the other the "social science inquiry" position. Barth and Sharmis (1970) expanded this model into three traditions: social studies as "citizenship transmission", "social studies as social science" and "social studies as reflective inquiry". More recently a five-group model represents social studies as: knowledge of the past as a guide to good citizenship, the student-centred tradition, reflective inquiry, structure of the disciplines, and socio-political involvement (Brubaker, 1977). Such models in Brubaker's terms are an attempt to state, "The way things have been, should be and can be" (1977, p. 201). They have been described as an attempt to integrate differing approaches and to bring greater consistency to the field (Shaver, 1977, p. 114).

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[20] Each position, in some perspective, is anomalous in terms of the general goal of citizenship. For example, the social science position tends to assume that the structures learned and the methods of inquiry used will transfer to the pupils' adult lives so they can discharge their duties as citizens. Whilst it is accepted that the social sciences can, in this way, make an important contribution to the individual's understanding of a complex world, it does not ensure its use in the process of the pupil internalizing and adopting a particular citizenship role. Morrissett (1979) takes up some of these issues.

The models described are not inclusive of model-making in social studies[21] and, again, exception is not taken to the diversity of viewpoint shown. However, these models do represent the attempts of leaders in the field to systematise the one true curriculum for social studies. To the extent that such activities are typical of educationists, they also appear to be isolated from the context of the school, to avoid consideration of the many imponderables in school life and to be inappropriate in terms of the complexity of curriculum development. Intellectual/educational leadership in social studies has seemingly tended to avoid in any full-blooded fashion the issue that

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[21] Newman (1978) has distinguished eight approaches to civic education: the academic disciplines of history and the social sciences, law-related education, social problems, critical thinking, values clarification, moral development, community involvement, institutional reform. It would seem that there must be a stage when such self-examination reaches a point where the results are of negative benefit. This point is noted by Morrissett (1979).

> ...the business of socializing children--of motivating, inspiring and encouraging them, of transmitting values to them, awakening in them a respect for facts and a sense of critical appreciation--all of this is unspecific...It implies 'what a man is' as much as 'what a man does'. The role obligation (of a teacher) is diffuse, difficult to delimit and the activities of the role are highly diverse (Wilson, 1962).

The literature of social studies, in important aspects, tends to lack a referent to the schooling process and to the relationship between the teacher and educational change. The seeming discrepancy between theoretical positions and the observed reality of schools and classrooms is evidenced by what Morrissett (1979, p. 17) and others have perceived as "a large gap (that) exists between education as practiced in the colleges and universities and education as practiced in the elementary and secondary schools" (1979, p. 17).

If curriculum development is to be effectively implemented in schools there would appear to be a need for mutual learning. If such is to occur then in terms of Freire's (1968) analysis, there is a need for dialogue among all participants, dialogue which includes action and reflection and the mutual acceptance of simultaneous roles.[22] Such a process would perhaps provide a more meaningful perspective of what is involved in the reality of change and a basis for deliberation in making decisions. A consideration of teacher perspectives of change in the school context would not resolve the value decisions so deeply imbedded in curriculum development, but an increased awareness of the dimensions of such perspectives could assist in providing a more realistic and subjective basis for considering proposals for change in social studies.

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[22] Freire's analysis would seem to contain a sound philosophical and methodological justification of the absolute need for the active role of the user in the change process. In particular, educational change cannot occur without an active critical role for users. The alternative would seem to be a process of oppression in the form of top-down decision-making which tends to objectify both the authority figure and the recipient required to implement innovation.

Social Studies in Alberta Elementary Schools

The teaching of social studies in Alberta elementary schools evidences what appear to be cycles of reform, optimism, trial and adjustment followed by countervailing dissatisfaction and disillusionment which has tended to critically focus on the role of teachers in the schools. The course of study, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum, Interim Edition (Alberta Education, 1978) currently forming the basis of instruction, grew out of history and geography programs developed in the early 1900's.[23] Since then various course revisions have introduced new content, teaching approaches and experiences but the overallimpression is that revisions maintain an undercurrent of sameness in form and response. A ubiquitous concern for citizenship appears to run through all courses.

In the early years of the century, programs appeared to focus on the objectives of citizenship in a societal rather than an instructional sense. Considerable emphasis was placed on transfer of training with pupil memorization of definitions, names, and dates in the teaching of history and geography; biblical stories and the lives of great heroes were utilized to inculcate moral precepts (Government of Alberta, 1920, p. 50). Courses were brief, rigid and limited in their instructional advice.[24] The quality of teaching, in a somewhat paradoxical fashion, was criticized for its emphasis on memorization of facts, definitions, and assignments which involved rote learning of pages of a textbook. Generally speaking, the approach to citizenship specified by the 1922 Revised Course, exemplified the philosophy of the period. History was to be "a background against which the meaning and importance of good citizenship will stand out clear and attractive." The past was to explain the how and the why of the "good in the present order of things" (Government of Alberta, 1922, p. 129). Despite such revisions however, the work of schools and teachers was subject to professional criticism. Ministerial reports noted that "History and geography are still largely handled by the pupil as a mass of innumerable facts to be memorized" (Government of Alberta, 1933, p. 44).

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[23] Chiste (1963) notes that when the Province of Alberta came into existence there was "little disruption in the work of the schools". A reason for the smooth changeover was that the territorial school ordinances were continued for some time after 1905 (p. 36).

> Furthermore, these facts were isolated within narrow subject fields...Public school instruction is split up into water tight compartments far too much for the children to receive the benefit that this part of child life must offer them (Government of Alberta, 1932, p. 47).

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[24] For example, Standard III is reproduced below: Canadian History - Outline study from leading features, e.g.: discovery; exploration; struggle between the French and English colonists; Treaty of Paris; Quebec Act; Constitutional Act; War of 1812; Rebellion of 1837; etc. Government of Alberta, Programme of Studies. Edmonton: Department of Education, 1910, p. 6.

Times were, however, changing. In the concluding years of the 1920's and the early years of the 1930's, the demand for universal education and the need for a more appropriate educational program for children began to influence instructional practice (Myers and Klien, 1969). There was a gradual shift away from the almost exclusive use of subject matter as the determinant of objectives and a shift to the learner and the idea of socialization. Concern was expressed that

> ...too much emphasis was placed on memorization of information and not enough emphasis on methods of study and the interests of child life...It is an obligation...of education ...to discover and create interests to make students aware of their value, to respect them, to direct, feed and convoy them over barren beginnings,...to lead them to ends considered worthwhile, and as far as possible to establish approving attitudes which, impelling to satisfying activities, set up persisting habits (The A.T.A. Magazine, September, 1928, p.14).

One hope for future curriculum was that "whatever devices they discover must be made usable in ordinary classroom situations"The A.T.A. Magazine, October, 1928, p. 17). The general public was also sensitive to such issues. Another concern was that the school in the nature of its organization

> ...partakes more or less of the factory system. As in the factory so, even too much in the school, all the children are put through the same process, and insofar as nature will permit are turned out as a standardized product (Rachael J. Coutts, Calgary. Cited in The A.T.A. Magazine, February, 1929, p. 9).

But improvements were also perceived

> ...the full significance of individual differences in pupils has been granted only recently by the general teaching body ...Many teachers are now searching for ways and means of adapting instruction to the needs of individual children (The A.T.A. Magazine, October, 1928, p. 16).

History, it was noted, seemed to be a mixture of "the heroic and politics".

> The heroic is frequently false, always rational. Here at the forefront of the ages, where Teuton and Celt rub shoulders with Slav and Romance, we still cherish little nothings which carry distinction rather than universality. The deeds of commercial companies still occupy the front pages of our instruction, and the heroism of industrial exploitation runs rampant from cover to cover (Leaver, 1933, pp. 1-2).

Citizenship courses, history and literature were criticized for fostering excessive obedience and submissiveness (Corbin, 1928, p. 28). The curriculum generally was described as rigid, resistant to change and overly concerned with cultural rather than more utilitarian or vocational objectives (Wallace, 1930, p. 3). Two concerns were that "The School should cease to aim at 'teaching things' and 'try teaching children instead'" (The A.T.A. Magazine, July, 1930) and that the life and work inside the school should be brought into closer contact with that of the community around it. "Education does not limit activities by the walls of the school or the covers of textbooks...(and) education founded on real life purposes is the most genuinely cultural of all education" (Wallace, 1930, p. 1). In the context of such views and with a deepening economic depression, education tended to be perceived as an agency and social studies as the means to "encourage the transition to a new and better social order" (Edmonton Education Society, April, 1933). This relationship was actively promoted by Huff (1933) who proposed a curriculum based entirely upon projects, problems and interesting activities through which the common essentials of information and skills would be learned with a minimum of formal instruction and no prescribed textbooks. Social studies, he suggested, should begin in Grade I with

> ...wholesome child activities, through which the pupils learn incidentally the principles of courtesy and consideration for others, truthfulness, kindness, courage, honesty, sympathy, thrift, co-operation, mutual helpfulness--and it gradually broadens out to include actual studies in community life of interdependence in relation to food, clothing, shelter, communication, transportation, protection of life, property, education, leisure occupations and other social activities including government. The teacher in her sphere is the ideal citizen. Daily in her the pupils behold courtesy, kindness, sympathy, justice--the qualities of good citizenship (Huff, 1933, p. 7).[25]

With emphasis on "projects", "activities", "interests", "community" and "interdependence," social studies tended to reflect the tenets of the New Education Fellowship actively fostered in Alberta by Sansom[26] and to incorporate the main features of what was to be the 1936 revised course in Social Studies. Obtaining documented evidence of teachers' views of the period is difficult, but there continued to be strong criticism of the schools. Alberta's system was said to be, in general principles, much what it was when first established in territorial days: existing courses were overloaded, courses lacked practical value to children when they assumed adult status, and methods were too 'bookish' (Van Allen, 1934). In 1935, however, reforms were set in motion that were to have an important effect on the elementary school program generally and particularly on the course for social studies. A decision was made

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[25] It is of interest that Dr. John S. Huff, Deputy Minister of Education, Saskatchewan, addressed the South Alberta Teachers' Association on this topic at this time. His views foredated the Enterprise approach but appear to summarize its significant features. His views are reproduced in some detail for this reason.

[26] C. Samson, Ph.D. appeared to be influential in promoting the New Education Fellowship.

> ...to fuse geography with history into a newly constructed area called social studies; the other decision was that of concluding that, as the individual generally learned the new in an integrated setting, some attempt should be made to organize school learnings as much as could be...done under Alberta conditions (Letter from H. A. MacGregor, former Inspector of Schools, January, 1962. Cited in Chiste, 1963, p. 73).

The revised course, introduced in 1936, placed the emphasis on children: their interests and ways of doing things were guides for the teacher in her planning of work. The approach was in spirit on activity[27] although as Chiste (1963) notes, it was not an activity program in the fullest sense. Skills considered essential and knowledge in the traditional subjects were outlined. The activity part of the program was conducted through the Enterprise (activities in which the students participated) which was to provide meaning and understanding in a particular phase of the social studies course. Its broad purpose was stated as the organization of activities which would create situations closely resembling those which the child would face as an adult. This practice, it was believed, would result in a clearer understanding of the processes of co-operation and an appreciation of human relations. Chiste (1963) believes that, while professional opinion endorsed the new program, successive revisions became more prescriptive and reduced teachers' freedom to choose within the program. Teacher hostility and doubts as to the effectiveness of the Enterprise tended to be equated with a failure to recognize that subject matter was not an end in itself but a medium of "mental and spiritual growth" (Edmonton Education Society, October, 1936). A specific concern was that teachers lacked

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[27] Lazerte, M. E. (1936) in an address to the Alberta Teachers' Association provides a contemporary account of the program. The focus of his presentation was in the terms of interpreting Dewey in the classroom. He explicated three interpretations:

One stressed learning by doing. Activity is used for motivation, the activities being organized in each subject or for fusion of all subjects. This he suggested fostered the traditional curriculum.

Another laid stress on "child interest", a stress on freedom--the play way in education. This tended, he believed, to give a curriculum determined by the whims of children and resulted in superficiality.

A third interpretation laid stress on the "social training". School was to be used to re-make the social order. Emphasis was placed on development of social attitudes and social ideals. This tended to minimize the worth of that body of subject matter which did not lead to a new improved social order, but at least it gave an insight into the nature of current social problems.

What happened in Alberta? Dr. Lazerte's view was that the new curriculum would utilize activity for motivation, use a little of the interest and freedom, and less yet of the social implications except as relating to the aim of developing a wholesome personality and inculcating desirable character traits. The new curriculum adopted an integration of subject matter, particularly in the social studies--geography and history. He stated "we are using the Enterprise method as motivation, a centre of group activities, and as providing a culmination or satisfactory completion. Formerly our eye was on subject matter. Now our eye is on how to present and correlate that subject matter into a meaningful whole" (Lazerte, 1936, p. 29).

> ...a sophisticated background in education (necessary) to fully understand the introductions and explanations in the curriculum guide...because teacher education was not at the university level...and was only one year's duration (Chiste, 1963, p. 116).

Some evidence indicated a lack of library and other facilities necessary to support program activities (Chiste, 1963). Despite such constraints, contemporary statements tended to reflect considerable enthusiasm and optimism for the future success of the program.[28] The principles it embodied tended in an idealized form to reflect a shift from a subject-centred to a more romantic view of curriculum; a view that was to become pervasive of educational thinking, or at least its language, in the province of Alberta. The program presented educational critics with a revised, problematic view of man, of society, and of the place of education in that society. The lock-step movement of pupils in the grade organization was to be replaced by a more flexible system that would provide for the individual needs of pupils. In the future no longer would

> ...teachers complain of mass methods, of poor textbooks, of narrowness, of quantity;...(nor) laymen...tell of employees who cannot perform simple operations in arithmetic or cannot spell or write; of lack of initiative, of inability to carry out orders (Collins, 1928, p. 15).

Education was to have "real purposes", "the creeks and inlets (were) filling up for a spring tide that (would) bring in some deep draught ships carrying cargoes for which we have long been waiting" (The A.T.A. Magazine, January, 1929, p. 9). Schools would "discover and create interests for Tom, Dick and Harry (not to mention Amelia and Mary) however these may differ individually,...not incidentally and fortuitously but primarily and assuredly" (The A.T.A. Magazine, September, 1930, p. 3; September, 1928, p. 14).

The merits of the program seemed apparent in the contemporary situation, but in its re-ordering of priorities, its grouping of content as subjects and as Enterprises, it appeared to offer no clear objective for teaching. Method instructions were detailed but a great deal appeared to be left to individual interpretation (Lazerte, 1936). A number of questions appeared to be unanswered and perhaps were unanswerable in the context of a large province. What mastery was to be obtained over what skills and generalizations? Who was to determine what attitudes and features of personality were to be fostered and in what specific manner? What specifically was the purpose of this enterprise in instructional terms? What were the essential understandings and attitudes to be developed by the teacher? A great deal was open to interpretation and as the Program of Studies posed:

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[28] "There is no doubt in my mind that the New Course is very successful indeed in Division 1 and to go back to the Old Course would be a great disaster." Letter from James D. Larson (school teacher) to H. C. Newland cited in Chiste (1963, p. 106).

> It will be possible, therefore, for the teacher either to use the enterprise procedure, or to present the material of the outlines in a series of formal lessons. In actual practice, however, the teacher will not find it desirable to follow exclusively either the enterprise procedure or that of formal teaching. (Department of Education, 1936. Cited in Elementary Curriculum Guide, Department of Education, 1964, p. 5).

Lazerte (1936) noted the activity program would be valid if teachers saw "the real purpose underlying it. There should be no imitation and no parade throughout the inspectorates of Indian, Dutch and Mediaeval life" (p. 29). Use of the enterprises worked out in teachers' help magazines without regard to locality would, he believed, tend to kill the spirit of the Enterprise. It was Alberta's interpretation of an "activity" program. Its implementation, then as with later revisions, appeared to be dependent in important aspects in the context of citizenship, on the teacher's view of human beings and their world.

The Elementary Curriculum Guide (Department of Education, 1964) describes successive revisions but, although presented in a slightly different form, the 1964 program remained organized on essentially the basic principles that were introduced in 1936 and didn't expect much less than the earlier course. The objectives of social education were to contribute to citizens who

> ...understand...changing society; possess a sound framework of values and ideas which indicate what ought to be, set goals for the individual and give direction to his actions and have the necessary competence...to participate in group living in such ways as to make changes in the direction of the desired values and ideals (Department of Education, 1964, p. 7).

This 1964 course did, however, attempt to meet recommendations of the Royal Commission of 1959 (Government of Alberta, 1959) which favoured a more structured approach together with school accreditation. Increased emphasis was given to specification of methods directed toward pupil skill acquisition, but with the proviso that such structure should have "sufficient flexibility to permit adaption at the local level to suit varying needs" (Department of Education, 1964, p. 6). The 1964 revision was, in this way, an attempt to resolve conflicting pressures for curricular change.

The Commission's Report appeared to indicate a marked shift in societal values and priorities. It noted public dissatisfaction with the schools

> ...lack of concern with facts...(that) it would like to see pupils more knowledgeable about the general features of the Canadian scene--including geography, immediate history, the working of...government and the obligations and responsi-

bilities of citizenship (Government of Alberta, 1959, p. 104).[29]

There was, the Commission noted, public dissatisfaction generally with school curriculum: standards were believed to be too low, there were too may "frills", the challenge of courses was low, too little emphasis was placed on intellectualism and individuality, and too much upon social adjustment and group standards. The schools, it was believed, were usurping the role of the home and the church in the matter of character training. Public apathy towards education and towards teachers was hindering the work of the schools; therefore, the Commission sought public endorsement of the role of teachers. The Commission also appeared to be critical of the Department of Education for a tendency to dictate method and organization which it considered should be in the hands of the teacher, principal and superintendent (Recommendations 57-59). This view appeared to reject the tight control over the curriculum the Government of Alberta had used to implement its constitutional authority.[30]

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[29] A study of the public's views of the aims of education gave some guidance, but clearly indicated that no one set of ends could be presented as the will of a majority of the public. The Commission endorsed as the main tasks of the school: to develop (1) communication skills, (2) computational skills, (3) knowledge, skills, and appreciation of the cultural heritage, (4) physical fitness and mental health, (5) good citizenship.

[30] This central control, as Simms (1978) notes, was characterized by its uniformity, lack of community involvement and minimum input from school boards, schools and teachers. Prescribing in considerable detail, the Department of Education would utilize its service publications to set out courses of study for the entire province. These publications included goals, instructional objectives, content and textual materials to be used. Such courses were developed externally to the schools and their implementation was geared to teacher transmission, utilizing such measures as school inspection and external examinations.

For the first time, it would appear, there was a concern to find the answer to the question of where the teacher stands if and when authority and its prescriptions are removed (Owen, 1970). The Report's recommendations appear to have heralded what has been described as "a decade of self-examination and search for new directions for social studies education" (Aoki, 1973, p. 1). Such activities initially appeared to have resulted in the compromise of the 1964 course revision but, by the end of the decade, culminated in a "rather drastic revision" of the Enterprise (Downey, 1975). The result, Experiences in Decision-Making (Department of Education, 1971), Crowther notes (1973), was "a program which won immediate approval from respected critics" and which led to the prediction that the Curriculum Branch of the Department of Education in Alberta "will have a profound impact on social studies curricula in the Seventies" (p. 1). Alberta it was claimed, "has been able to rise above its limitations and pioneer a new social studies trail, one which has already pointed the way for several provinces (Gunn, 1971, p. 665). Such glowing assessments of the Alberta program were not uncommon (Massey, 1974). Alberta's education department had taken "what was hailed as a brave new step in the teaching of social studies" (St. John's Edmonton Report, January 5, 1976, p. 16).

As Downey (1975) notes, there were a number of "assumptions and articles of faith" which were central to the new program (p. 34)[31] The expectation, however, seemed not inconsistent with the Enterprise of 1936 nor the revised course of 1964:

> ...students eventually should accept, prefer and commit themselves to certain values, while rejecting others. Finally, they should conceptualize their own values, organize a value system, and through their actions, become characterized by a particular value or value complex (Department of Education, 1971, p. 11).

The major characteristics of the 1971 curriculum were its valuing orientation and its flexibility (Aoki et al, 1973). The orientation, as with previous revisions, appeared to be essentially socially adaptive and utilitarian in that it emphasized the utilization of knowledge in the formation of a clear and defensible system of values although not with the earlier emphasis on vocational goals. Flexibility was inbuilt in that the Department of Education had drawn back from near complete prescription in favour of more broadly based guidelines.[32] The program was specific that

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[31] (1) that Social Studies ought to include much more than the traditional disciplines of history and geography and, indeed, ought to expose the students to the major conceptual frames and modes of thought of all the social sciences; (2) that rote memory and the simple mastery of facts ought to give way to more inquiry-oriented experiences; (3) that the processes of valuing ought to be a central aspect of all learning experiences in the social domain; (4) that textbooks and other kinds of obsolescing materials ought to give way to more teacher-prepared learning materials to keep the contemporary aspects of the subject alive and up-to-date; and (5) that students and parents ought to have a good deal to say about the selection of materials (Downey, 1975, p. 32. Emphasis added).

> ...many decisions will be made at the district, school and classroom level in order to meet the needs of particular groups of students as well as the needs of individual students (Department of Education, 1971, p. 21).

Teachers at the local level, more so than was the situation in previous revisions, were left with decisions on program development in addition to interpretation and implementation of social studies curricular instruction. A report of a major evaluation study undertaken in response to widespread concern[33] indicated that five years after its introduction the program was not being implemented in a large majority of classrooms in the province (Downey, 1975).

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[32] Sims (1978) notes that the evolution of government policy toward a greater decentralization of curriculum decision-making is epitomized by a Policy Statement Relative to Curriculum Development and Sections 12 and 13 of the Revised School Act. This statement, which was issued by the Department of Education in August of 1970, outlines the new power sharing arrangements between itself and the local jurisdictions, and the purpose of this policy change. First, the policy of the Department of Education is to prescribe courses in broad terms, leaving many curriculum decisions to "...be made at the district, school and classroom level..." Second, that the purpose of this new policy is "...to meet the needs of particular groups of students as well as the needs of individual students." ..."According to these statements the decentralization of responsibility for curriculum decision-making is based on the belief that diversity in the school curriculum, which is required if individual needs are to be met, is best achieved through greater local involvement in curriculum planning and development" (Simms, 1978, p. 49). Precisely how this responsibility is to be allocated among the various vested interest groups in the local educational enterprise would appear to be problematical.

[33] Initially, it seemed, there were criticisms of the program's valuing orientation at both the conceptual and operational levels (Lytton, 1973; Massey, 1974). The question of teacher autonomy with respect to curriculum decisions at the local level contributed to what has been described as "The Curriculum Debate in Canadian Education (Friesen and Holdaway, 1973). Concern was expressed by educators at all levels in the province (Aoki et al, 1973).

The report concluded:

> Throughout this inquiry, one very troublesome issue has returned to us over and over again...it now appears abundantly clear to us that no depth of scholarship, no technical excellence, no classroom expertise will serve the needs of the new...program unless the personality and the disposition of the teacher are supportive of its intents. About one-third of our teachers reject the inquiry and valuing orientations, and less than one-fifth actively promote them. Effective programs of teacher education may do much to change these ratios. It is clear, however, that many candidates for teacher education enter professional programs with attitudes and philosophies and convictions (variously derived from the home, the church, or the community) which are partly or wholly antagonistic to student prerogatives of open inquiry and valuing. In many cases these characteristics are so firmly ingrained that no amount of study...and no amount of liberalizing experience (professional or other) will dispose them towards other than establishment kinds of thinking and acting in the classroom. Is this not a kind of sabotage? We now require from all teacher-education candidates indications of academic potential comparable to that for other kinds of professional education. Should we not also require fromthem...indications of intellectual flexibility and open ness--together with the disposition to encourage these characteristics in others? Given the fact of our pluralistic society and a...program that purports to accommodate a plurality of positions and values, is it reasonable to leave the implementation of that program in the hands of teachers who, themselves, cannot tolerate pluralism? (Downey, 1975, pp. 29-30).

The concern of this study is not to evaluate the fidelity of social studies curriculum development nor its implementation. It has previously been suggested that statements of what should or ought to occur are not always very useful in interpreting how classroom teachers respond to programs which impinge upon their established habits and practices. Rather, an attempt has been made to establish and identify the obduracy of social studies teaching when confronted with proposals for change. Such regularities that have been noted tend to confirm that citizenship education is to a significant extent both a social and an ethical issue in the cultural setting of the classroom and school and in the broader societal context. An exploration of the dimensions of teacher perception of change in the classroom is judged to be helpful to understanding the broader implications of both educational and social change.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to describe and explain two second grade teachers' perspectives of a curricular change proposal and its implementation as part of their classroom program. In this chapter, the research method is clarified through an explanation of the basic principles of symbolic interaction, including a definition of perspective. The implications following from symbolic interaction for participant observation research are then described and the procedures used in this study are presented. As the question of validity is a recurrent objection to this method, validity is discussed with reference to the study.

Symbolic Interaction

The development of symbolic interaction into a recognizable social psychology stems from the writings of John Dewey, Charles Horton Cooley, Robert Park, W. I. Thomas and George Herbert Mead among others (Blumer, 1969). The underlying assumptions of the theory were presented by Mead in lectures at the University of Chicago in the period 1893 - 1931. The basic perspective is presented in Mead's Mind, Self and Society (1934) which expressed his ideas of the relationship between subject and object (the "I" and the "me") and the development of self. After his death in 1931, his students published and continued to refine the theory.

Although interactionists continue to differ among themselves as to the meaning and importance of various concepts related to symbolic interactionism, its assumptions are clear. Human beings are viewed as rational and continually involved in giving meaning to their social world. Each individual interprets or defines that which is encountered including the actions of other people. The individual does not merely react to situations in the manner of stimulus-response theory but, rather, interposes a process of interpretation between the stimulus and the response. The response is based on the interpretation which is related to any action, event or situation. In this manner, interpretation is the keystone of human attempts to cope with the social world.

Mead presented this act of interpretation using the idea that the human being has a self. Thus, "I," an individual, am able to be the object of my own action, "me." I can act toward this self as I act toward others. This process enables me to make indications to myself. I am then able to construct my actions, and evaluate, accept, or reject my indications to myself. Thus, I make sense of my social world by acting toward myself and others through self indications. These self indications allow me to interpret reality and consciously construct my actions. My self indications depend on my definition of the situation--my perspective.

For the purpose of analysis, Becker, Geer, and Hughes divide perspectives into three categories:

1. Perspectives contain a set of ideas describing the character of the situation in which action must be taken.

2. Perspectives contain actions or activities which one may engage in given the world as it is defined by the person.

3. Perspectives contain criteria of judgment. (Becker, Geer, and Hughes, 1968, pp. 29-30)

In this study, these categories were used in analyzing the data.

Participant Observation: Implications for Research

In this study, an important assumption was that teachers develop a perspective towards curricular change and the process of implementing such proposals; that is, teachers have a consistent way of thinking and acting towards curricular change. This perspective enables teachers to make sense of a curricular change proposal, interpret it and construct their actions in implementing it. The problem posed in this study was to identify the components of two teachers' perspectives of a curricular change proposal and describe and explain these perspectives. In order to do this, a suitable method had to be used, one that would meet the position of symbolic interaction, and that, in Blumer's (1969) terms, would enable the researcher to catch the process of interpretation by placing and immersing oneself in the social situation under investigation. Participant observation is a methodology characterized by a period of intense social interaction between the researcher and the subjects in the milieu of the latter (Becker and Geer, 1957; McCall and Simons, 1969).

Following the principles of symbolic interaction, participant observation is concerned, in the context of this study, with two aspects of the subjects and their specified situations: (1) describing the process of interpretation used by the subjects in making sense of the curricular change proposal; and (2) inferring and explaining in abstract terms the perspective or definition of the situation the subjects use to make sense of the curricular change proposal. In order to do this, the researcher adheres to the following process.

While the researcher brings along some theoretical ideas, a theoretical framework related to the study, (s)he avoids pre-structuring the inquiry to specific hypotheses or preconceived notions. Instead, hypotheses are generated and tested on a day-to-day basis in the process of observation, and the explanation develops from the descriptive data. In the field, notes are taken of the subject's actions and statements, and where possible, particular activities may be recorded for later transcription. In systematic fashion, the notes are read, tapes are transcribed, and as the study progresses themes, concerns, and patterns emerge. In some cases, the patterns may form the basis for further hypotheses that require further investigation or verification from the subjects to test their plausibility. However, whilst the generating of ideas, concepts, and propositions is an on-going process, it is during the post-fieldwork stage of a study that the researcher concentrates most on the analyses and interpretation of data. Only when all the data have been recorded is it possible to refine hypotheses and examine the conditions under which they hold true. In the course of this process, the researcher modifies or converges certain hypotheses and discards or develops others. The researcher's ultimate goal is to show the relationship between hypotheses in order to achieve an integrated body of propositions, based on a small number of concepts, which leads to increased understanding of a social phenomenon (Denzin, 1970, p. 5). Thus, in their final stages of development, hypotheses are generally not the "A causes B" type but rather propositional sets that seek to establish an explanatory network. Such a network is grounded in the research method but is subject to tests of logical consistency, relevance, adequacy and compatibility with the actions of the participants (Bruyn, 1966; Denzin, 1970). The presentation of the data in narrative form represents the culmination of the research process. This is undertaken in a style which best expresses the viewpoint of the people involved in the study (Bruyn, 1966). The style is often empathetic and reflects the manner in which the participant observer has taken on the perspectives of the other participants. But questions of validity have been raised concerning this method.

Validity and Reliability

The questions asked by this study were best answered by a qualitative methodology. The overriding issue of the study was the meaning for themselves of the subjects' actions and the manner in which they are validly presented in the researcher's descriptions. The constant focus was on a valid empathic representation of what was happening: in this study the meaning of two teachers' actions in responding to a curricular change proposal. The method had to be suited to approaching the data subjectively; but, at the same time, it had to be sensitive to the operation of unconscious factors on observation and to the influence of emotion on how and what was seen and the effect of the observer's personal interests, values and orientation. It had to be capable of answering the question, "How does one know that what is offered as a description, is so?" Participant observation was judged to be a method responsive to these issues.

The participant observer rigorously adheres to a number of guidelines and can insure that what is said is a reasonable picture of the social setting and that all significant manifestations of what is sought have been experienced. This study was guided by Homan's six indices of subjective adequacy designed to produce a worthwhile participant observation study. These are:

1. Time: "...the more time an individual spends with a group, the more likely it is that he will obtain an accurate interpretation of the social meanings its members live by."

2. Place: "...the closer the observer works geographically to the people he studies, the more accurate should be his interpretations."

3. Social circumstances: "...the more varied the status opportunities within which the observer can relate to his subjects, and the more varied the activities he witnesses, the more likely the observer's interpretations will be true."

4. Language: "...the more familiar the observer is with the language of his subjects, the more accurate should be his interpretations.

5. Intimacy: "...the greater degree of intimacy the observer achieves with his subjects, the more accurate his interpretations."

6. Consensus: "...the more the observer confirms the expressive meanings of the community, either directly or indirectly, the more accurate will be his interpretations of them."

(G. C. Homans, The human group. New York: Harcourt Brace and Company, 1950. Cited by Bruyn, 1966, pp. 180-184)

The participant observer comes into social situations where teachers are responding to and implementing a curricular change proposal. The proposal has meanings in these settings apart from that assigned by the person entering the setting. The task of the participant observer is to uncover these meanings. This process is facilitated by adhering to Homan's indices, and in doing so the participant observer strengthens the validity of the description and explanation. Undertaken with care, the participant observation method yields a validity of description and explanation that is reflected in the accurate portrayal of the subject's world (Bruyn, 1966). Validity concerning the meaning and meaningfulness ofthe data collected is a central question in a qualitative study.

In a quantitative study, however, a central concern is reliability: replicability of the study and consistency of scientific findings. The usual procedure in a quantitative study is to employ standardized instrumentation which appropriately deals with questions of reliability. Standardization is not characteristic of qualitative research and, indeed, such instrumentation would tend to be in conflict with its methodological principles. The value of participant observation methodology is that it does not prestructure data prior to research. Its focus is on a valid representation of what is happening, not at the expense of reliable measurement, but without allowing reliability to determine the nature of the data. Consequently, reliability is more pertinent to quantitative studies (Patton, 1975). This is not to demean the value of the question of reliability, but to note that reliability is a question more appropriately addressed to the quantitative paradigm while validity is addressed by the qualitative paradigm. The idea in both paradigms is high reliability and high validity but, nevertheless, differences in emphasis are discernible in the two paradigms.

Identification of an Innovation

For the purpose of this study it was necessary to identify a particular focus that was to be communicated to teachers in the form of a change or improvement message that would meet certain criteria. First, the innovation should be curricular in nature; that is, involve a new instructional unit in social studies education. Second, it should be characterized by what Fullan (1972) describes as the modal process of change; that is, the instructional unit has been developed externally to the schools and transmitted to them on a relatively universalistic basis.

The multi-media learning resource kits developed for each elementary school in the province of Alberta were judged to meet these criteria. These kits feature Canadian content materials in social studies and were prescribed for implementation in the 1978-79 school year. The kits are innovative in content, in that they are designed to meet perceived needs and expectations for the teaching of social studies in Alberta schools. Specifically, the kits are designed to provide increased emphasis on studies of Canadian history and geography, greater detail and specificity of grade level content and objectives, and identification of primary (prescribed) learning resources.

The particular kit chosen for the study was that for Grade 2, Topic B, "Canadian Communities: The Same or Different?"

Selection of the Subjects

The in-depth, exploratory and intensive nature of the study required that it be confined to a small number of subjects and settings. Moreover, as the researcher was the sole investigator and fieldworker in this study, the settings had to be easily accessible in terms of time and location. An additional determinant of the choice of subjects was that they were strangers to the researcher. Bogdan and Taylor (1975) suggest that acquaintanceship will tend to bias one's perspective and interpretation.

On the basis of such concerns, two Grade 2 classrooms in the Edmonton Public School System were selected as appropriate settings for the study. The decision to select Grade 2 classrooms in preference to other elementary grades was based on the presumption that at the lower elementary level the shorter concentration span of younger students, together with the increased rapidity with which events are likely to change compared with the upper elementary level, was likely to facilitate the collection of data concerning teaching decisions in implementing change in the classroom.

The decision to select a restricted sample of teachers of the same grade level from within a single school, in preference to teachers of different grade levels and/or schools, was based on the belief that contextual variables are likely to vary less between classrooms at the same grade level within the same school than would be the case between differing grade levels or different schools. Recent research (Doyle and Ponder, 1975; Doyle, 1977) suggests, however, that the influence of broad variables, such as classroom size, number of pupils, lighting, equipment, layout and noise level, may not be as great as one might like to think.

The basis for selecting the specific subjects and settings depended on the willingness of the principal, the teachers and the school to participate and upon the Edmonton School Board granting permission for the study to be undertaken. The only specific requirements were that the classrooms not be architecturally open in apparent contradiction of assumptions underlying the study, that the teachers not be involved in team teaching, that there be as little integration or overlap as possible between the components of the curriculum program, and that the teachers be experienced and considered "competent".

The teachers who participated in the study were found through the assistance of a university faculty member who was familiar with the schools. The faculty member was asked if he knew of two experienced second grade teachers whose situation would match the requirements of this study. He suggested two people who later became the subjects of this study. The principal of their school was contacted and he arranged a meeting with the two teachers and the researcher. The principal's permission for the project to be undertaken was conditional on the teachers' willingness to participate in the study. The meeting was held, the project was explained and the teachers indicated their willingness to undertake the project. It was made clear to the teachers that the quality and success of the research was dependent upon the avoidance of disruption and the maintenance of the normal classroom setting. Assurances were given that their names as well as the name and location of their school would be kept in confidentiality and that any information gathered would not be used to harm them in any way. It was also made clear that, at any time, they had the option to withdraw from the project.

The Observer's Role

Lutz and Iannaconne suggest three categories of participant observer roles (1969, pp. 11-113).

1. The participant as observer: in this type of role, the researcher is already fully established as a member of the social setting and the role as observer or researcher unknown to the other members. This type of study is surreptitious examination of the situation. The researcher is a total participant, but is unknown to the subjects under study.

2. The observer as a participant: in this type of role, the researcher identifies the purpose of being present and to some extent shares in the activities and enters into interaction with other participants.

3. The observer as a non-participant: in this type of study, other participants may or may not be aware of the observer's presence and purpose, but the observer avoids all forms of participation in the activities in the setting.

In this study, to catch the process by which the two teachers encountered, interpreted, and ordered their view of the curricular change proposal, the researcher placed himself in the teachers' environments, took a limited role in some classroom activities, and observed the teachers from as many vantage points as possible. The researcher was not a participant observer in the sense of taking the role of the teachers but rather an "observer as participant." This role offered several advantages to the researcher working within the two settings. Adopting this role enabled the teachers to be made aware that the observer was a participant primarily for the purpose of research. This awareness permitted the observer to ask research-oriented questions--particularly those concerned with the clarification of meaning. The role also encouraged the teachers to provide the researcher with unsolicited information. Moreover, it provided the researcher with the freedom to participate or withdraw from activities at his discretion (Lutz and Iannaccone, 1969) but in a manner that fulfilled the requirements of the methodology.

The Method of This Study

During the first three weeks I accepted the principal's and teachers' invitation to familiarize myself with their students, classroom activities, and the school. I visited the school each day, observed each of the classrooms, regularly had lunch with the staff and chatted informally with the principal and staff members. During my initial visit I had been introduced to the staff by the principal at morning tea break. He clarified my position as a researcher who was also a visitor to Alberta. It was a very welcoming situation and the principal indicated an active personal interest in the project and research generally. He was pleased to discuss a project he had completed and demonstrated interest in the role of the researcher in his school. The teachers and I discussed our roles and established guide lines for the period of the project. We agreed that I would not teach at all but could, and would, help where possible by fulfilling monitorial tasks. One teacher was pleased that I should, in the initial period, take groups of students and hear them read. This facilitated the process of establishing a relationship with the teacher and the students. The other teacher was pleased that I should feel free to observe in her classroom but felt that I had better things to do than to take on classroom tasks. In her view, my time was valuable and she would rather I use it for other purposes. Both teachers were pleased that I should talk to the students several times during this introductory phase. Without the teachers making a specific comment, such sessions enabled the students to satisfy their curiousity and facilitated my entry into the social situation of the two classrooms. Interacting with the students assisted the process of the participants becoming comfortable with each other in the classroom. I felt that I had a place in each classroom, in the staff room, and the school setting. This process was also assisted by the school secretary who, by personality and position, acted as a common denominator in interpersonalizing staff room patterns of behaviour. Her desk was adjacent to the staff room and to the principal's office and was the focus of school activity. She was bright, cheerful and acted as both a focus and a gatekeeper in normalizing staff and group membership.

A personal concern was the relatively short time period anticipated as necessary for teaching Kanata Kit 2 relative to the purposes of the study; to obviate this, a series of interviews were undertaken with the two teachers using a Teacher Career Model Interview modified from Schatzman and Strauss (1973). A copy of this schedule is included as Appendix A. These interviews, and informal talks before school, during the day, and after school, were also helpful in establishing a working rapport with the teachers. The teachers, during this period, began to feel comfortable that I was in their classroom and approved of my tape recording class activities and interviews. I found lengthy note taking difficult and we came to accept the use of a tape recorder as the most effective way of keeping a record. The teachers felt more comfortable when I was not taking notes for extended periods of time and, if they had a comment to make, the process was expedited by the recorder. The students, too, accepted a tape recorder as part of the equipment of a "person seeking to find out what happened in Edmonton and Alberta schools." The tape recorder was left on the teacher's desk or on the shelf at the back of the classroom. On occasion, a student would examine it, make a comment, and then ignore it. This pattern of behavior was similar to the students' response to having an observer in their classroom. If a student had something of interest to tell or was excited about a recent happening, the event would be shared with me; but if it had to do with work, I was ignored; classwork concerns were communicated directly to the teacher. I was greeted happily and with interest, but in the class the students seemed to regard me as a live part of the furniture. On occasion, for instance, each of the teachers was required to leave the classroom and the students always evidenced surprise, when their attention wavered, to find that I was in the room. They were not sure what my re-discovered presence meant in terms of the possibilities of the situation, and these possibilities were not challenged for any lengthy period of time.

During the first days the pattern of information collection was established which provided the data for this study:

1. Direct observations of the behavior of the teachers and verbatim transcriptions of their statements, conversations and lessons were made.

2. Formal interviews based on the observations were conducted with the teachers to verify concepts, seek more information or test

hypotheses. Transcripts of two interviews are included as Appendices B and C.

3. Informal interviews were conducted with the teachers, the principal, and the level one social studies consultant. Comments from these people were usually unsolicited and, in some instances, facilitated the data analysis. Included in this category is a meeting between the two teachers and a project teacher who was invited by the principal to give the teachers any necessary assistance.

4. Background information was provided by the teachers and the principal. In some instances this was verbal and, on occasion, in the form of documents.

My daily procedure consisted of a number of steps. First, I entered the school and greeted the secretary and, if present, the principal. Second, I entered the classrooms and greeted the teachers. If classes had commenced then I would knock on the door, walk through the class cloak area and sit on "my chair" to the side of the teacher's desk situated at the back of the room. The chair was smaller than normal size and, in using it, I felt less conspicuous and more immersed in the setting. This situation was replicated in each classroom. When the teacher was involved with a student or a presentation to the class, I waited until it was convenient to greet her. Some of the students would, at times, glance in my direction, and there were times when the teacher would break the pattern of activity to have the students say a formal greeting and then ask a question or seek an opinion, so that I might participate in the class activity. Third, I recorded the events of that time period whilst seated. I was present, in the initial period, at various times during the day, and for various class activities, and limited such observation periods from ten to fifteen minutes, although on occasion the time extended for the period prior to a mid-morning, noon hour, mid-afternoon break, or the period prior to home time. I was in the classes for varied time periods and for various activities. Upon commencement of the implementation of Kanata Kit 2, there was agreement that my observations should focus on the teaching of this unit, a situation made possible by the teachers' subject time tables. I asked each teacher if she could devise a way to record her expectations prior to, and her thoughts upon completion of, these activities. One teacher proposed the features of the sheet which is included as Appendix D. The other teacher thought this a good idea and these sheets were prepared prior to their teaching Kanata Kit 2. The sheets were titled Teacher Perceptions of Teaching (TPOT). The construction of the TPOT schedule helped clarify the nature of the study for both teachers; it seemed to make clear the purpose of the study and the intent of the researcher. The later completion of these schedules was a source of satisfaction to the teachers and from their viewpoint added to the veracity of the project.

Step four--the completion of notes, the playing back of sound tapes, transcription and tentative analysis--was undertaken after leaving the school. The tapes were transcribed on a daily basis and with the more incidental notes were analyzed for significant incidents, patterns of behavior, recurring statements, and conflict situations. Such analyses generated hypotheses for testing in subsequent observations and interviews with the teachers. Two outsiders to the study were asked to read the field notes and their impressions were used as a check against my interpretations. When observations suggested a relationship between incidents, these were investigated to establish possible relationships that would support tentative hypotheses or propositions. By this process, which was intensified by the task of transcribing, I became immersed in the two settings and was placed in a situation of empathy with the two teachers confronting and implementing a curricular change proposal. Transcription and analysis extended the study until it became a lived experience.

The field site for the study included more than the teachers' immediate classrooms. I observed the teachers in other areas of the school including the resource center, school office, staff room, the playground, corridors, and participated with one teacher in a neighbourhood class excursion.

Three months of field work produced a considerable amount of information. The field notes number over four hundred typewritten pages. I also accumulated a variety of printed material in the form of handbooks, letters to parents and curricular material. Additional material included completed TPOT schedules, teacher notes and samples of student work. In writing the description of this study, I have not reproduced all the data. That which appears represents what is judged to be the most substantive and revealing information, given the purpose of the study. The conclusions are presented as the response of two practitioners to a curricular change proposal and should be interpreted in the context of that proposal. In Chapter 4 I describe the proposal and the contexts within which these two teachers act: the community, the school setting, the classroom settings, their definitions of situation, and behavior and interactions in responding to, and implementing, Kanata Kit 2. My explanation refers to the description of that which forms the teachers' perspectives of this curricular change proposal.

CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION OF THE DATA

The purpose of this study is to describe and explain two second grade teachers' perspectives of a curricular change proposal and the process by which they implement it as part of their social studies program. Because the interactions of the two teachers occurred in response to a specific teaching kit and in a particular setting, a description is included of the innovative proposal and the setting in which it is to be implemented. The findings are selectively presented including those statements, criteria of judgment, and actions which constitute the teachers' definition of situation, their perceptions of the kit and the process of implementing it in their classrooms.

The Change Proposal: Kanata Kit 2

Manner of presentation

The kit is presented in a box with a base and sides measuring 30 centimetres, finished in a black vinyl-like material. The box has a removable lid made of the same material which is bounded on each side by a retaining flap about five centimetres in depth. On one of the side flaps "Kanata Kit" is inscribed in white lettering about two centimetres high. The uniformity of colour is broken on one side of the box by a large white figure two, centered within a white circle. This circle on the left half of the side is superimposed on a tangerine, boomerang-like design. On the right half of the same side, in white, is the title, "Canadian Communities: The Same or Different?" When the lid is removed, the box is seen to contain the items listed as "Components and Titles" as presented in Figure 1. The teacher's guide, books, filmstrips, audio tape, felt map and study prints are attractively presented and reflect what could be described as a commercial/professional finish. The teacher's guide is enclosed in a black loose leaf folder with the same cover design as the container. It is enscribed "Kanata Kit 2, Teacher's Guide, Canadian Communities, The Same or Different?" Its first page is titled somewhat differently, "Canadian Neighbourhoods: The Same or Different?" This Teacher's Guide provides the most complete description of the instructional unit including the background to its development and the unit design.

Background

The introduction notes that in October, 1977 the Alberta Minister of Education proposed the Alberta Heritage Learning Resources Project to assure further development and distribution of Canadian resources for Alberta schools. Part of this proposal led to the preparation of 16 multi-media learning resource kits featuring Canadian content for social studies. Twelve kits which were already in development under the auspices of the Canadian Content Project were revised to meet the criteria of the Alberta Heritage Learning Resources Project and then were incorporated into the 16 multi-media resource kits. The kits were called "Kanata" from a word of Indian origin, which in the

Quantity per Kit	Components and Titles
1	Teacher's Guide
30	Books, *Six Stories for Students,* including: "Carley's Adventure" "Little Man, Big Man" "The Anniversary Surprise Party" "Susie Finds a Friend" "Show and Tell" "Billy and the Whale"
1	Filmstrip, *This Land is Your Land*
1	Audiotape, *This Land is Your Land*
1 each	Filmstrips: *Toronto: An Urban Neighbourhood* (to complement "Carley's Adventure") *Medicine Hat: A Small City* (to complement "Little Man, Big Man") *An Edmonton Acreage: Country Living* (to complement "The Anniversary Surprise Party") *Shaunavon: A Farming Community* (to complement "Susie Finds a Friend") *Powell River: A Mill Town* (to complement "Show and Tell") *Terence Bay: A Fishing Village* (to complement "Billy and the Whale")
1	Felt map of Canada and attachments for map (10 pieces)
17	Student Masters for duplication
6	Study prints of Canadian neighbourhoods
3	Aerial view study prints

Figure 1

Huron language meant "village" or "community". In 1934 the term was used by Jacques Cartier in referring to the new land as "Kanata".

The introduction cites three interrelated reasons or propositions for the development of the kits featuring Canadian content. First, the need for Canadians to understand differences and techno-social change:

> Since the time of Cartier, tremendous changes have occurred in Canada. While our country has become home to people of widely differing backgrounds, advances in technology have changed, and continue to change, our lives and influence our beliefs. To understand our Kanata, our changing Canadian community of today, it is necessary to examine our similarities, our problems, and our prospects. (Alberta Education, 1979, Introduction iii)

Second, the significance of knowledge, and particularly a knowledge of Canadian history and geography as the basis for the development of personal responsibility.

> ...the need to know and to understand ourselves; who we are: where we are in time and space; where we have been; where we are going; what we possess; what our responsibilities are to ourselves and others" (Alberta Education, 1979, Introduction iii, citing T. H. B. Symons, To Know Ourselves: The Report of the Commission on Canadian Studies. Ottawa: Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada, 1975, 1:12).

Third, expressed more in the nature of an aspiration than a reason, is the development of reflective, participatory citizenship.

> It is also believed that...the use of those Kanata Kits will help students acquire sensitivity to their human and natural environments, intellectual independence, moral maturity and a willingness to participate effectively in community affairs" (Alberta Education, 1979, Introduction, iii).

Acknowledgements

The contributions of a school district and some twenty-four persons comprising Alberta Education administrators, teachers, subject consultants, university faculty and commercial consultants are noted on two pages of the introduction to the Teacher's Guide. The names, nature of contribution and professional position are listed. The names of the members of the two development teams are enclosed within a black outlined rectangle. It could be assumed that acknowledgements, in this setting, are to be noted by teachers.

Unit Features

As a more specific introduction, "Notes for Teachers" describes the features of this multi-media learning resource Kanata Kit 2, "Canadian Neighbourhoods: The Same or Different?" The description is paraphrased as follows:

> The major issue for inquiry in this kit is:
>
> *How should neighbourhoods in Canada use space?*
>
> During the inquiry students discover how their own neighbourhoods are similar to and different from other Canadian neighbourhoods and are challenged to formulate reasons for personal likes and dislikes regarding various facets of their neighbourhoods.
>
> In order that students acquire some understanding prior to coming to a decision on the major issue, the research of the unit is structured around two sub-issues:
>
> *Should neighbourhoods have many or few residents?*
>
> *Should neighbourhoods reflect the unique characteristics of their environment?*
>
> These issues are examined in the context of six Canadian neighbourhoods: Shaunavon, Saskatchewan; Powell River, British Columbia; Terence Bay, Nova Scotia; Toronto, Ontario: Medicine

Hat, Alberta; and an acreage near Edmonton, Alberta.

Activities included in the study of these six neighbourhoods are intended to help the students understand why neighbourhoods use space in different ways and have varying degrees of population density. In dealing with the two sub-issues, students will clarify and assess competing values within these issues.

To foster students' awareness of the need to interact and co-operate with their neighbours, some of the activities include a social action component designed to emphasize their involvement in their immediate surroundings.

The unit emphasizes active participation and interaction among students and teachers. The activities are intended to deepen emotional response as well as to develop intellectual skills and understandings of concepts. The underlying premise is that intellectual learning is accompanied by feelings, and that, by accepting and dealing with those feelings, the teacher can heighten motivation and response to cognitive material and foster positive classroom relationships.

Part IV of the unit consists of a comprehensive test for formal evaluation. It is noted that formative evaluation in the form of follow-up exercises found at the close of activities can be used to determine whether additional study need occur (Alberta Education, 1979, Introduction).

Each section of the unit begins with an overview which explains its scope. In addition, each activity begins with a statement of intention. There are also statements of objectives for activities, statements of values, knowledge and skills. Their manner of presentation is illustrated in Appendix E which presents Part 1, Kanata Kit 2. Finally, it is noted, the Conceptual Framework Outline (Figure 2) and the Master Chart of Issues, Activities and Objectives (Figure 3) "delineate the structure and development of the unit as a whole" (Alberta Education, 1979, Introduction, x).

Several optional activities which appear throughout the unit are presented as enrichment exercises. "They are not meant to replace core activities but can be used as supplementary activities at the discretion of the teacher" (Alberta Education, 1979, Introduction, x). The Teacher's Guide, Table of Contents (Figure 4) indicates the relative insignificance of such enrichment exercises in the total setting of unit activities.

The Nature of the Change Proposal

The multi-media resource unit, Kanata Kit 2, "Canadian Neighbourhoods: The Same or Different?" is designed to introduce Grade 2 students to the ways Canadian neighbourhoods differ in terms of population density, and the ways such differences affect people's lives. To achieve this purpose the unit is structured around the study of a social issue and utilizes an inquiry teaching approach based on systematic learning objectives. This approach is designed to promote active participation and interaction among students and

Conceptual Framework
Canadian Neighbourhoods:
The Same Or Different

Part I - Activity I

Neighbourhood

Statement of Issue:
How should neighbourhoods in
Canada use space?
Students make initial hypothesis

HYPOTHESIS EVALUATION

Part II - Activities 1-9

Should neighbourhoods have many or few residents?

Major Concept Development

Neighbour
Population Density
Rural Neighbourhood
Neighbourhood
Urban Neighbourhood

Motivational Techniques

Filmstrips:
Toronto, a large city
Medicine Hat, a small city
Edmonton, an acreage

Research Questions

What types of homes do the people live in? (apartments, single family dwellings, condominiums)
How busy are the streets?
What kinds of buildings are in the neighbourhood? (stores, churches, schools, fire halls, barns, factories, community centres)
Where do the nearest neighbours live?

Activities 10-14

Should neighbourhoods reflect the unique characteristics of their environments?

Major Concept Development

Maps
Space
Uniqueness
Environment
Interdependence
Recreation

Research Questions

How far is it to school?
How do the children get to school?
What is the land like around the neighbourhood? (rocky, flat, mountainous, water)
What type of work do most of the parents do to earn a living?
What do the children do for recreation?

Synthesis Activities

Motivational Techniques

Filmstrips:
Shaunavon, farming neighbourhood
Powell River, pulp and paper neighbourhood
Terence Bay, fishing neighbourhood

Value Issues Activities

Decision-Making

Final Hypothesis

Part III - Activities 1-2

Action

My Model Canadian Neighbourhood

Figure 2

Master Chart of Value Issues, Activities, and Objectives

Value Issue	Activities	Value Objectives	Knowledge Objectives	Skill Objectives
		The student will:	The student will develop interpretations of the following concepts	The student will develop proficiencies in the following skills:
PART I - OPENER	Identifying Canadian Neighbourhoods. (Activity I)	Become aware of a variety of Canadian Neighbourhoods.	Neighbourhoods	
PART II Should neighbourhoods have many or few residents?	1. What Does the Word Neighbour Mean? (Activities 1,2)	Begin to understand his or her attitudes and feelings about neighbours.	Neighbour, space	Inferring, generalizing, and gathering data about neighbours and space.
	2. Our Neighbourhood (Activity 3)	Develop an understanding of the responsibility and commitment required of each individual in a neighbourhood.	Neighbourhood, interdependence of people	Observing, listing, and clarifying things which make up a neighbourhood and things people do in a neighbourhood.
	3. Population Density (Activities 4,5)	Develop an understanding of personal freedom and how it is affected by population density.	Population density, using and sharing space	Mapping, comparing/contrasting, hypothesizing, and generalizing about population density and space.
	4. Canadian Neighbourhoods (Activity 6)	Begin to understand his or her attitudes and feelings about city and country neighbourhoods.	Urban Canadian neighbourhood, rural Canadian neighbourhood	Viewing, comparing, contrasting locating and inquiring information about different urban and rural neighbourhoods.
	5. Different Neighbourhoods (Town and Country) (Activities 7,8)	Begin to understand his or her attitudes and feelings about similarities and differences in neighbourhoods.	Similarities and differences among people and neighbourhoods.	Observing, discussing, discriminating, and gathering data about neighbourhoods.
	6. Studying Canadian Neighbourhoods (Activity 9)	Become aware of the effect population density has on the lifestyle of a neighbourhood.	Population density, neighbourhood locations.	Gathering data, hypothesizing, inferring, applying information about population and location of neighbourhoods.
Should neighbourhoods reflect the unique characteristics of their environments?	7. Finding Out About Canadian Neighbourhoods (Activities 10, 11,12,13)	Become aware of how space in a neighbourhood reflects the unique characteristics of the surrounding environment	Maps represent space, uniqueness, environmental influences, interdependence.	Mapping, gathering data, interpreting pictures, hypothesizing. Mapping, data gathering.
	8. Neighbourhood Recreation (Activity 14)	Become aware of how recreational activity depends on the environment.	Recreation, uniqueness, environment.	Data gathering, applying information.
PART III What are the desirable characteristics of a model Canadian neighbourhood?	9. Blueprint for a neighbourhood (Activity 1)	Become aware of the components that make up a neighbourhood.	Space, population, housing, community services, environment	Inferring, applying information, gathering data, reporting, constructing, hypothesizing about "model Canadian Neighbourhoods."
	10. Synthesis "My Model Neighbourhood" (Activity 2)	Develop an understanding of the characteristics of a model neighbourhood.	Neighbourhood, location, space, population density, housing, model.	
Student Evaluation				

Figure 3

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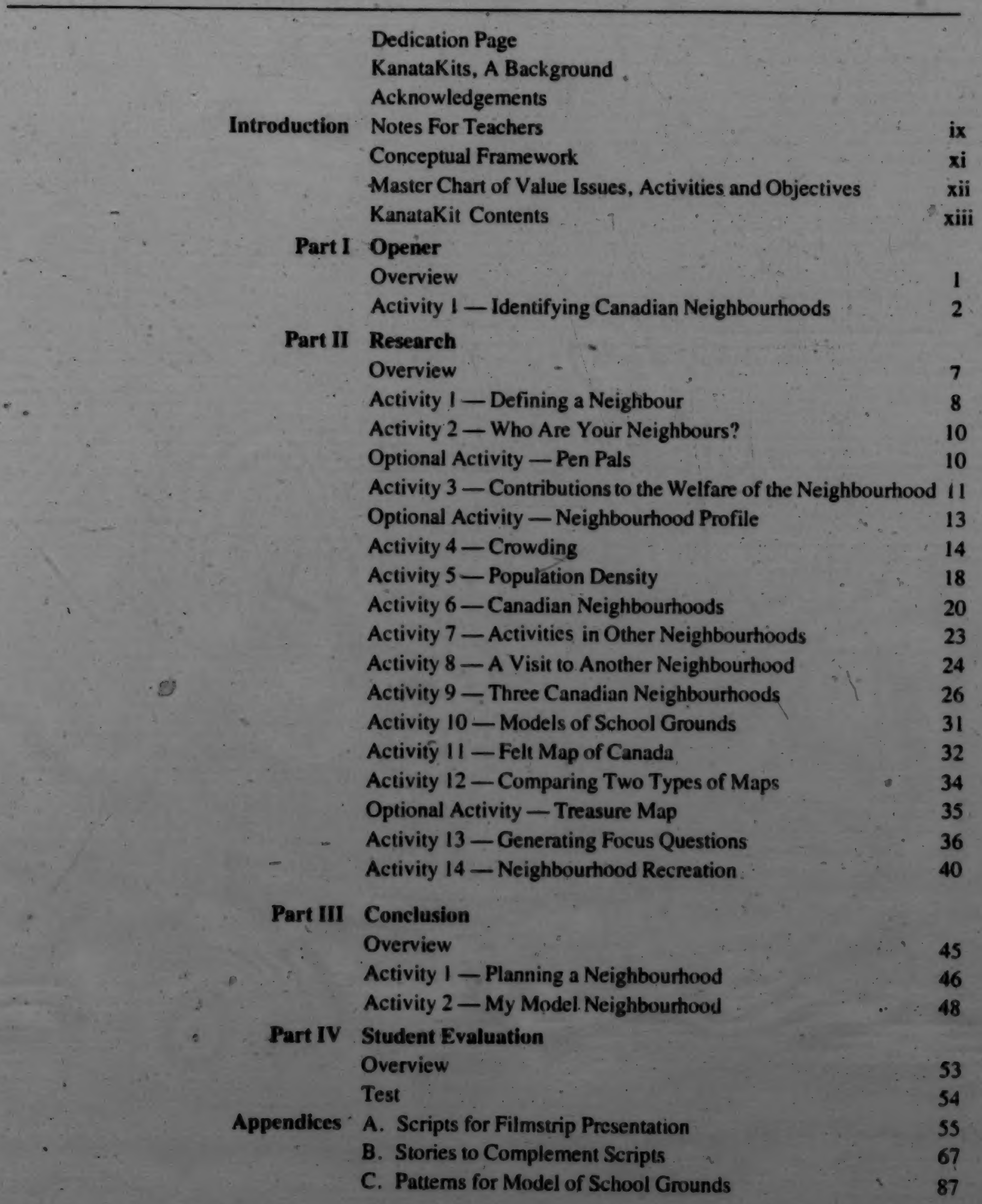

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Figure 4

teachers both in the area of decision-making and in the affective area of value clarification. It is also designed to develop student intellectual skills and knowledge of concepts in the process of: identifying the issue, hypothesizing, establishing research questions, gathering and organizing information, synthesizing the information, taking a value position, making a decision in the form of a final hypothesis, applying the decision, evaluating the decision. The description also notes a relationship among teacher acceptance of student feelings, a heightened motivation to cognitive material, and the development of positive classroom relationships.

Theoretical Stance and Orientation

The preceding section presents a description of the innovative proposal derived from the resources which are disseminated to teachers prior to its implementation in their classrooms. The description notes the form of the kit presentation, the background to its development, and principal features. This description, it is judged, represents the developers' view of the innovative proposal and their ideal of what should be realized in the process of classroom presentation; it presents a specification for effective practice. More generally, it implies a theoretical stance towards the ordering and interpreting of reality within the social studies classroom, a view of human beings and their world. As Freire notes:

> All educational practice implies a theoretical stance on the educator's part. This stance in turn implies--sometimes more, sometimes less explicitly--an interpretation of man and the world. It could not be otherwise. (Freire, 1970a, pp. 205-206).

Implied within the multi-media learning resource, Kanata Kit 2 and the practices it prescribes, therefore, is a view of human beings and their relation to the world.

When the underlying assumptions concerning man are examined it seems evident that the major orientation of the kit is technological (Freire, 1970). Within this technological framework, a problem is defined in terms that allow for its resolution through the application of techniques designed to produce predictable ends by standardized means under specified conditions (Smith and Meux, 1968). It evidences a concentration on "reconstructed logics" in the form of an idealization of the scientific method (Kaplan, 1964). Using this logic, knowledge is judged for its capacity to increase control, and efficiency in solving a problem. Generally, the empirical-analytic knowledge of the sciences is used to provide rules and strategies, conditions, predictions and skills. Skills, in this context, refer to the proper application of rules and strategies that will facilitate the solving of the problem. Although the Teacher's Guide supports the appraisal of alternatives and personal decision-making, it is clear its orientation is technological or purposive rational.[1]

---

[1] ...instrumental action or rational choice or their conjunction. Instrumental action is governed by technical rules based on empirical knowledge. In every case they imply conditional predictions about observable events, physical or social. These predictions can prove correct or incorrect. The conduct of rational choice is governed by strategies based on analytic knowledge. They imply deductions from preference rules (value systems) and decision procedures; these propositions are either correctly or incorrectly deduced. Purposive-rational action realizes defined goals under given conditions. But while instrumental action organizes means that are appropriate or inappropriate according to criteria of an effective control of reality, strategic action depends only on the correct evaluation of possible choices, which results from calculation supplemented by values and maxims. (Habermas, 1972, p. 354. Emphases added)

The primary perspective of any curricular unit is that directed toward students and their social world: content and method reflect a conception of what people are and what they should be (Aoki, 1975). The content selected for study in Kanata Kit 2 is set in the framework of a social issue. Pre-determined materials, procedures and concepts are to be used in identifying, clarifying and resolving the issue in the sequence and within the scope of the pre-determined concepts (Figures 2 and 3). Technical and intellectual control are imposed on the content and the method of the unit. Associated with such control is a concern for certainty of outcomes. Student reality construction is regulated by the organization, structuring and sequencing of activities; by such techniques as check lists, fill-the-space activities and chart building; by detailing instructions for the teachers; and by the explicit detailing of proper methods for inquiry, planning, skill and concept development, and for meeting behavioral objectives. (See Appendix E.) The interest in technical control also implies a concern with efficiency. Teacher attention is directed towards student achievement of objectives, to formative on-going evaluation exercises, and to a comprehensive test for formal evaluation.

The unit provides for a "social action component designed to emphasize the students' involvement in their immediate surroundings" (Alberta Education, 1979, Introduction ix) and stresses a concern for "participation", "interaction", and "feelings" to enhance the student's meaning and understanding of the issue. However, the emphases of control, certainty, and efficiency would, it seems, reduce the human experience to a pattern or scheme. The decision-making process, with its associated clarification of personal values, emphasizes content rather than a lived experience. The identification, hypothesizing, analysis, and synthesis resolution of issue process impose a predictability on the unit, the teacher, and the student. Predefined reality structures, particularly in the form of method but also in terms of content, tend to control teacher planning and impose reality views that are, in turn, transmitted to students. Teachers, it would seem, are to understand students not so much in terms of the creativity, uniqueness, and histories that characterize them, but in terms of assessed needs, demonstrable behavior, and various taxonomies. Referring to the nature of the learner, the unit views the student by means of cognitive, affective, and skill categories, objectives and methods. Human experience in such terms is thus fragmented, permitting techniques to be directed to the achievement of efficiency, a process that tends to ignore human meaning and to stifle a questioning of the appropriateness of the applied procedures. The kit incorporates a particular set of social ideas of how individuals conceptualize and relate to each other as people and how they relate to their society as a social institution. Such ideas, on face value and in the normative setting of their sponsorship, could be especially potent when applied in schools because they are imposed on teachers and students (Popkewitz, 1977). The orientation is one of uniformity of problem resolution in a rather detached generalizable manner. It disregards teaching as a process by which teachers and students create a shared environment including agreements about what is important (sets of values and beliefs); it lends credence to the illusion of the idealized model of teaching social studies. The rationale of fostering students' self knowledge and sensitivity to human affairs in the milieu of Canadian culture is rejected and with it the idea of diversity of teaching and learning. The humanness of social values, beliefs and hopes is misled as the interpretation is of a society that thinks in terms of problems or issues rather than in terms of persons.

The Setting

The City

Robinwood[2] elementary school is located in an industrial city with a population of 425,090[3]. Petroleum activity and its associated chemical and petro-chemical industry dominate the city's economic climate, and this has been related to Edmonton's rapid growth in business, construction, and population. The mean annual salary or wage within the city of Edmonton is $14,646[4]. The average income per family within the province of Alberta is $21,251 with a median family income of $20,214. Many persons who work in the city reside in nearby suburbs and a smaller number of rural sub-divisions or acreages. The majority of the city residents, 78 per cent, give English as their mother tongue, but Ukrainian (5.0 per cent), German (3.8 per cent) and Italian (1.0 per cent), among others, are also first languages of Edmontonians. Robinwood Elementary School is located in a middle class community on the south-east side of the city.

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[2] The names of places and persons, where necessary, have purposely been changed in this narrative to insure anonymity.

[3] Unless otherwise specified, the statistics used in this section are taken from the 1976 Census. Statistics Canada, 1976 Census of Canada. Ottawa: Queen's Printer, 1978.

[4] Alberta Treasury. Survey Statistics. Salary, Wage Rates. Calgary, Edmonton, and Lethbridge. Bureau of Statistics, September, 1979.

The school is situated in a relatively new but established neighbourhood as most of the homes were built in the early sixties, about the time the school was first opened. The homes consist primarily of single family dwellings and a small number of walk-up apartment buildings. The situation of the school is one of a pleasant suburbia: large homes freshly painted, pastel window frames, lintels and facias; regularly mowed and trimmed lawns and nature strips; blue spruce in the garden and concrete driveways; regularity, care, and predictability in the nature of things.

The 1976 Census indicated that of the city residents living in this electoral sub-division who have completed their full-time schooling, 65 per cent have completed Grades 11-13, and of these, 31 per cent have successfully completed some form of post-secondary and/or university education. The same return indicated that: English was the mother tongue of most residents (75 per cent), two parent families predominated (89 per cent), and 55 per cent of all homes were owner-occupied. A teacher at the school described the parents as "middle class, upper income groups--teachers, office workers, bankers. There are some truck drivers" and noted that "a lot of teachers live in the area."

The School

The school, with its cream brick walls and wide window area, fronts on but does notdominate, a quiet domestic street. To the back it complements the neighbourhood with about forty acres of grass land, four soccer pitches, ten softball diamonds, and additional space for informal games. Close to the school is a tarmac and a jungle gym set available for division one children.

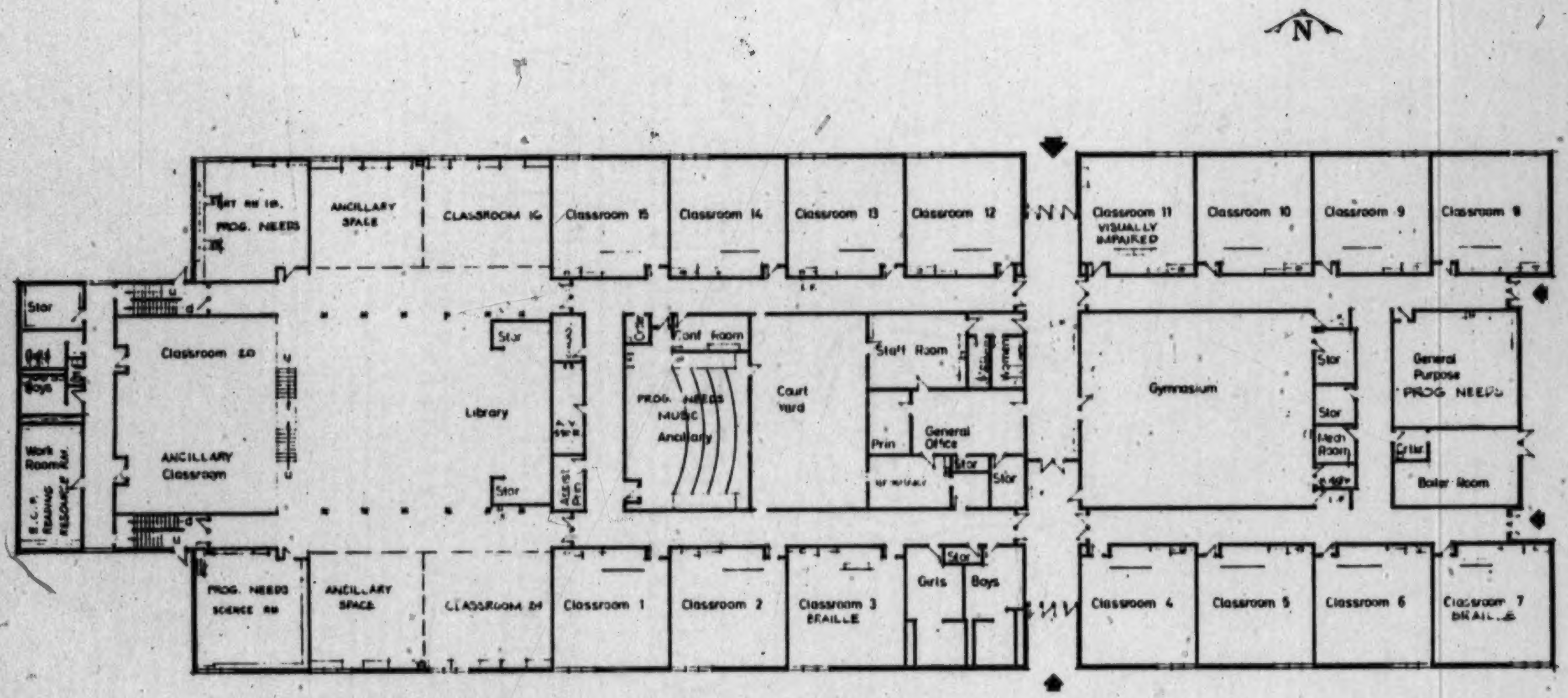
The building itself gives an impression of established newness. It is a single story with nineteen enclosed classrooms and six open area classrooms, three of which are occupied and to a large extent have been enclosed by temporary partitions. The floor plan is presented as Figure 5.

The building has large windows which create a sense of openness and lightness which is complemented by the soft green and cream of the walls and the spotless shine on the tiled floors of the corridors. As you enter the front door the impression is of an attractive high-ceiling spaciousness. An enscribed metal wall plaque contrasts with the general colour scheme. The inscription reads:

"This is one of the finest schools
in Canada
Please
Help us to keep it that way"

A door ajar leads the eye to a blackboard caption: "Happiness is doing your best."

There are over four hundred students in the school from kinder-


N
Classroom 16
Ancillary Space
Prog. Needs
Classroom 15
Classroom 14
Classroom 13
Classroom 12
Classroom 11 Visually Impaired
Classroom 10
Classroom 9
Classroom 8
Stor
Work Room
Reading Resource Rm.
Boys
Classroom 20
Ancillary Classroom
Library
Stor
A.V.
Assist Prin.
Conf Room
Prog. Needs Music Ancillary
Court Yard
Staff Room
Prin
General Office
Gymnasium
Mech Room
General Purpose Prog Needs
Boiler Room
Prog. Needs Science Rm
Classroom 24
Classroom 1
Classroom 2
Classroom 3 Braille
Girls
Boys
Classroom 4
Classroom 5
Classroom 6
Classroom 7 Braille

MAIN FLOOR PLAN - ROBINWOOD ELEMENTARY SCHOOL Scale 1:200

Cora's classroom setting: Classroom 6

Annette's classroom setting: Classroom 5

Figure 5

garten through grade six. The majority of the students live within walking distance of the school, but a small group are bussed from a newer residential suburb.

The main staff consists of twenty-four full-time and four part-time teachers. Included in the support staff are a librarian, a teacher aide, a school secretary, an assistant, a head custodian and a junior custodian, and a school nurse.

The school day begins at 8.35 a.m. for the teachers and classes begin at 8.50 a.m. The morning session breaks for lunch at 11.45 for students and staff. The lunch break is one hour and fifteen minutes long since the majority of the students walk home for lunch. The afternoon session resumes at 1.00 and concludes at 3.30 p.m.

The time-tables for the two grade two classes are presented as Figures 6 and 7. The sequence of the subjects and length of time spent per subject is flexible and open to the teacher's discretion but is designed to meet the guidelines established by the Department of Education. Time blocks are manipulated if necessary so that students can complete various projects and activities such as art work. In general, more time was spent on instruction in the morning session than in the afternoon session. Social studies, art, science, music, and physical education are flexibly interchanged or eliminated depending on the demands of the day. Despite a regular routine, on occasion the day is interrupted due to visitors, the provision of special services, and special activities.

The Classrooms

The classrooms of the two teachers, Cora and Annette, adjoin

TIME TABLE GRADE 2A (CORA'S CLASS)

	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
8.50 - 9.00	ASSEMBLY AND OPENING EXERCISES . . . . PRAYER AND FLAG SALUTE				
9.00 - 9.30	Math	Math	Library - Return books - get new ones.	Math	Math
9.30 - 10.00	Physical Education		Health - T.V All about your and follow-up (9:40-10.30)		Physical Education
10.00 - 10.30	Phonics	Printing		Printing	Phonics
10.30 - 10.45	RECESS				
10.45 - 11.45	Reading *	Reading *	Reading *	Reading *	Reading *
11.45 - 1.00	NOON HOUR				
1.00 - 1.20	Spelling	Spelling	Spelling	Spelling	Spelling
1.20 - 2.15	Social Studies	Social Studies	Math	Social Studies	Social Studies
2.15 - 2.30	RECESS				
2.30 - 3.30	Art	Music	Language	Music	Science
		Physical Education	Social Studies (Mrs. Hay)	Library (Hear story read to class by Librarian	

* Last ten minutes use for story.

Figure 6

TIME TABLE GRADE 2B (Annette's Class)

	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
8:50 - 9:00		OPENING EXERCISES			
9:00 - 9:30		DIRECTED READING			
9:30 - 10:00	Physical Education	READING SEATWORK ACTIVITIES			
10:00 - 10:30			Spelling		
10:30 - 10:45	RECESS				
10:45 - 11:30	Arithmetic	Arithmetic	Arithmetic	Science	Arithmetic
11:30 - 11:45	Printing	Printing	Printing	Science	Printing
11:45 - 1:00	NOON HOUR				
1:00 - 1:15	STORY TIME				
1:15 - 1:45	Language and	Art	Physical Education	Arithmetic	Language
1:45 - 2:15	Phonics	Art	Music		Health
2:15 - 2:30	RECESS				
2:30 - 3:00	Social Studies		Social Studies Mrs. Hay	Social Studies	
3:00 - 3:30	Social Studies Library		Social Studies	Music	Social Studies

Figure 7

and mirror each other as designs, each of which is a square of forty feet. The two classroom settings are presented in Figures 8 and 9. On the left as you enter each room is a cloak area bounded by a vertical, louvred, wooden divider. A book shelf and sink adjoin this area. The rear wall is spanned by a display board which is utilized by both teachers for displays which focus on topics such as nutritional needs, road safety, the seasons of the year, the rules of common courtesy and currently a display of a variety of Canadian neighbourhoods. Beneath this display board a two-tiered shelf is used for the storage of class texts and reference materials. The west end of the north wall of each room is a large window which allows sunshine and light into the rooms. A two foot wide bench extends beneath the window across the length of the wall. This has been used by both teachers to feature a window display of geraniums and other succulents which thrive in the direct sunlight. The display area above this bench features the students' art work, attractively displayed and clearly labelled with the students' names. On the east wall, the blackboard extends to a small display board adjoining the door. This display board is changed periodically following some theme. The themes were common to both rooms during the period of the study and featured Thanksgiving, Halloween, and Remembrance Day, each of which was centred about a calendar for the month. The top section of the blackboard displays the letters of the alphabet, the numbers one to one hundred, and on the north end of the blackboard the flag of Canada.

The student desks in each room are arranged in parallel rows

CORA'S CLASSROOM SETTING

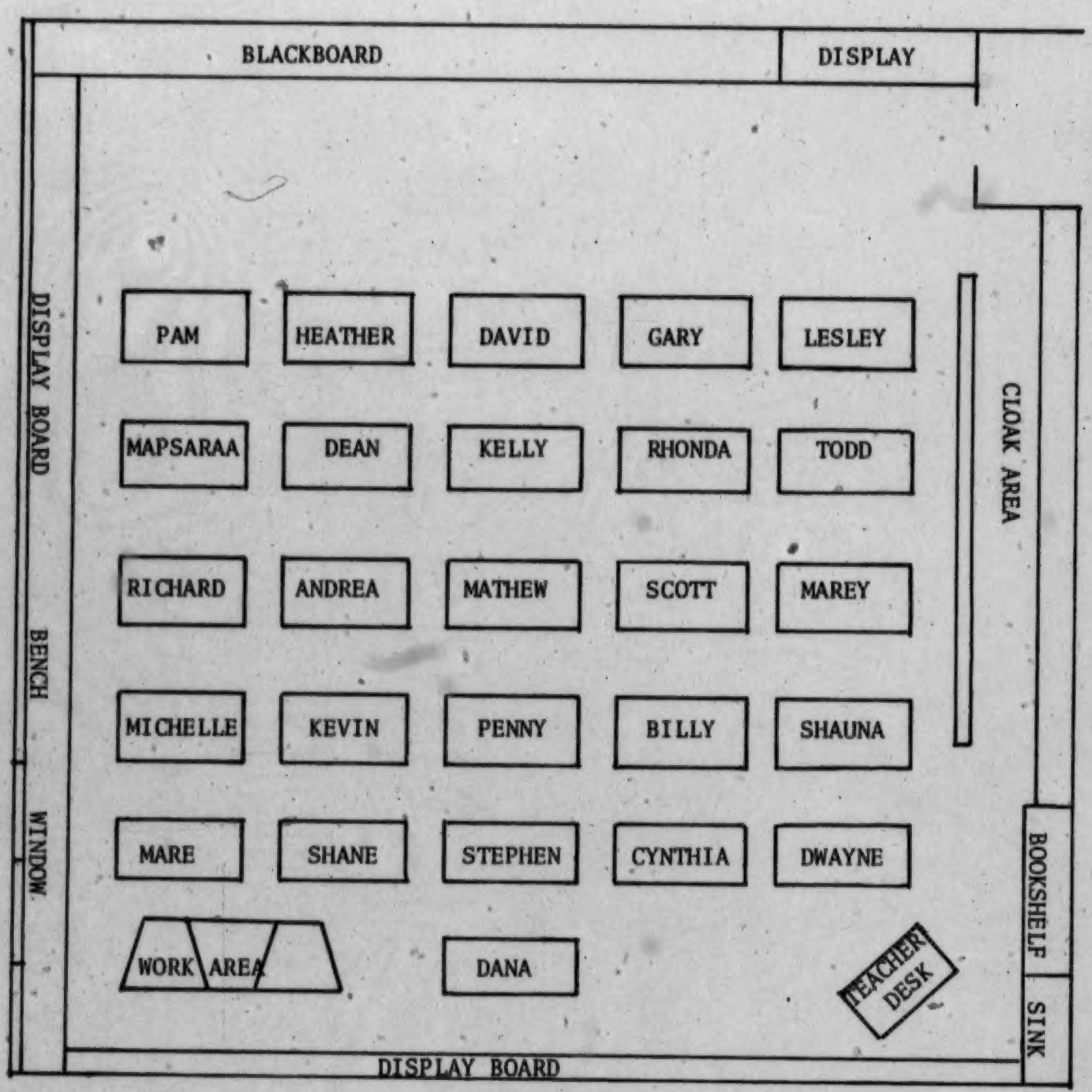

BLACKBOARD
DISPLAY
CLOAK AREA
BOOKSHELF
SINK
DISPLAY BOARD
BENCH
WINDOW
DISPLAY BOARD
PAM
HEATHER
DAVID
GARY
LESLEY
MAPSARAA
DEAN
KELLY
RHONDA
TODD
RICHARD
ANDREA
MATHEW
SCOTT
MAREY
MICHELLE
KEVIN
PENNY
BILLY
SHAUNA
MARE
SHANE
STEPHEN
CYNTHIA
DWAYNE
WORK AREA
DANA
TEACHER DESK

Figure 8

ANNETTE'S CLASSROOM SETTING

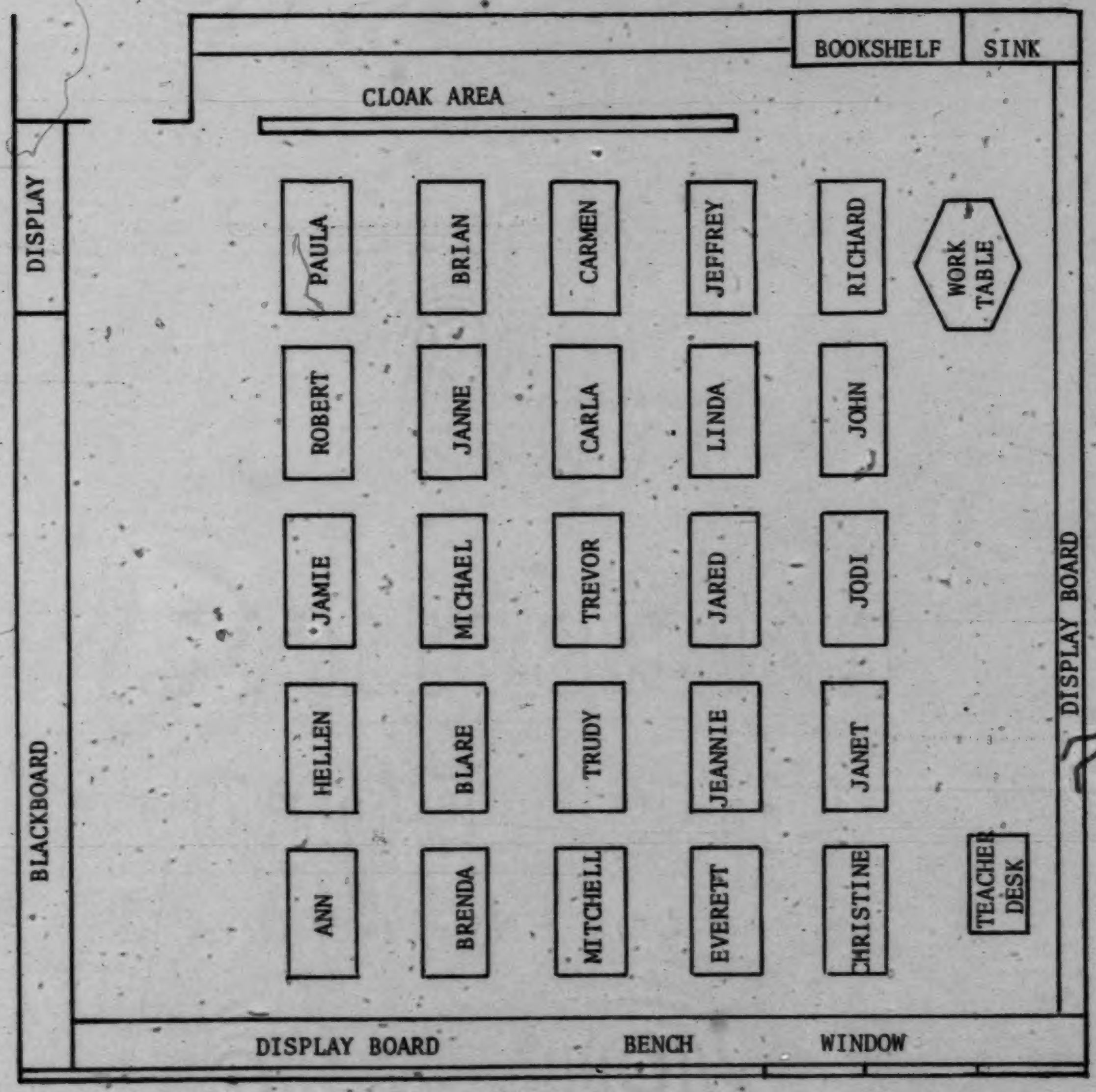

BOOKSHELF
SINK
CLOAK AREA
DISPLAY
BLACKBOARD
PAULA
BRIAN
CARMEN
JEFFREY
RICHARD
WORK TABLE
ROBERT
JANNE
CARLA
LINDA
JOHN
JAMIE
MICHAEL
TREVOR
JARED
JODI
HELLEN
BLARE
TRUDY
JEANNIE
JANET
ANN
BRENDA
MITCHELL
EVERETT
CHRISTINE
TEACHER DESK
DISPLAY BOARD
DISPLAY BOARD
BENCH
WINDOW

Figure 9

facing the blackboard. The wooden, light blue, steel framed desks are built in one unit with the seat attached. The desk top opens for storage of books and supplies. The face of the desk is slanted toward the student and is about twenty-four inches long by twenty inches wide. In the area behind the student desks there is in each room a teacher's desk and two trapezium tables which are utilized as preparation or work areas for tasks such as the cutting of paper and the collection of student workbooks or assignment sheets. The settings suggest that lessons presentations occur at the front of the room, preparation and correction at the back and displays on the perimeter.

The Students

There are twenty-five students in Annette's second grade classroom and twenty-six in Cora's. They range in age from six to seven years of age. Observation would suggest that the students represent a normal spread of heights and weights although one boy would perhaps be over weight for his body frame. One student in Annette's class and three in Cora's are members of minority groups. No student within either class qualifies for special financial assistance as a result of family need. One student only is in a home with one parent. The children in the two classes have been grouped heterogeneously on the basis of system-based standardized measures of ability and levels of achievement in reading and mathematics. A teacher described the students as achieving "a high standard;" "they are not lower class, nor undernourished. They have travelled to the United States and all over the place." They seem very happy.

The Teachers

The purpose of this study is to describe two teachers' perspectives of a curricular change proposal and its implementation as part of their classroom program. The central figures in this study are Cora and Annette who teach grade two classes in adjoining rooms at Robinwood Elementary School. Their perceptions of the change proposal, as it is communicated to them and as they implement it in their social studies programs, are the focus of this study. For their perceptions to be recognizable and fully understood however, it is necessary for their statements of beliefs and actions to be set in the broader context of the criteria that establish their definitions of situation. It is also helpful to know about their personal characteristics.

Cora

Cora is in her early forties, is married, has family responsibilities, and has taught for twenty-three years. Her appearance is always neat and elegant. She completed her pre-service training at the university after commencing as "a six or seven months trainee" taking "what was called the Junior E course." "It was mainly a methods oriented course" involving "a lot of lessons" and "a lot of direct experience." To Cora, it was "like an apprenticeship" and as "you watched successful people" you established a "real guideline" for your own teaching. When you took a particular course "you knew exactly what to do, where to go and they...taught you how to do it... Then you blossomed out on your own and what works for you, you enlarge on." She believes it is a "very good" way to "set up an educational system."

She describes herself as a "basics person" which to her means teaching a child specific skills and fostering the development of particular attitudes across a range of subject areas including reading, language arts, mathematics, social studies, and health. More specifically, "it involves teaching a child to be able to read, to enjoy reading, and to use reading as a tool to achieve other things;" to "spell, write, construct letters;" to be competent in the four basic number functions; "to get a concept of what the world is all about;" "to respect yourself as a healthy individual." This idea is clarified by the assertion that a "lot of oral expression" and "drama and things like that" are "getting away from the written form" and are not "basics". It is also clarified by Cora's timetable priorities. "I have a certain amount of math and reading I have to cover every week. Also spelling and the language arts. This is where I really put the emphasis." This idea of what is "basic" is used more generally, in the broader context of classroom setting. It is a definition which appears to be based more on life experience than explicit knowledge and principles.

She "never wanted to be anything else but a teacher. Never! Nothing else!" This desire, from the age of seven or eight, she attributes to the influence of her early teachers in a rural setting.

> The teachers in grades one, two and three...They were fantastic people...In our situation it was a one to six school but she taught one to three. My grade one teacher did a fantastic job. That was one of the major influences in my life.

Cora not only enjoyed school, she "loved" it. "I liked kids. I like books. I like reading and I just liked the school. I liked to go to school. I enjoyed it and this is where I wanted to stay." Her early life in a rural situation and the close personal associations it typified are happy memories. A particular memory is, as a teenager, "spending time" with younger patients in the small local hospital. "This", she says, "helped me relate to children and I've been with children...all my life."

To "like" and "respect" are important criteria in Cora's interpretation of her situation which tends to be nostalgic. Her first appointment was teaching forty-five fifth graders in a farm area. "Everything that I thought teachers were was really, really true for me in my capacity as a teacher." At that time "there were no televisions, some didn't have radios, and they didn't get to the city." The children "responded when you brought out pictures or talked about your personal experiences." "You could bring the world of knowledge to them" and "whatever you said, or did was important." "When the children came to school they were coming because they felt it was what they really wanted to do--not only because they had to." Education was "respected" for providing the "opportunity for living a better life." This "tradition", she believes, has been eroded by change and affluence. Parents are less interested in home life and children are "more receptive to outside influences." Teachers have "to try and provide" children with "a lot of the things they don't get at home." At one time Cora viewed her task as teaching "the basic skills", now "I'm expected to counsel, to mother the children, and to do all sorts of other things...I find this a real strain." This "takes away from your teaching because you have to try and analyze the child" and this takes time. The ideal pupil has a "good attitude toward school and shows interest in what he is doing and willingness to learn." Such a child "will accept responsibility for his work" and " doesn't always have to be told."

A central goal for Cora is that her children are provided with the "groundwork" of moral values. These values are reflected in the fostering of "respect for one another, for property, for the community at large." They also encompass "a drive to succeed but not at the expense of others" and the idea that "I want to do my best because I'm going to make the best of my life." These values are incorporated into the citizenship ideals of "respecting" and "appreciating" differing peoples and "knowing what your country stands for;" "to respect Canada for what it is." In Cora's view, there has been too much emphasis on the United States and other European countries with older historical backgrounds. "If we are going to be all good Canadians we should know the grass roots" and foster in children "a deep down feeling" for their country.

Her definition of situation reflects what she describes as an "inborn idea" or "vision" which is a situation attained in her classroom when "closeness" exists between herself and students and between each and every student. This concept of "closeness" with its composite notions of "like," and "respect," and its associated "involvement," underpin her decision-making and classroom organization. Children should like and enjoy school and this entails the provision of a supportive classroom atmosphere, typified by the stability of a single teacher pupil relationship. For Cora, it is important for the children "to identify with a particular teacher...You need to know your child and really get to know what its needs are...as a person." It is in these terms that she views her relationship with the children as that of a guide or air traffic controller. "It's like getting an aeroplane to land; you have the lights and so on to help it land on the right runway." "With children...if you widen it out too much they get lost and they are not sure." This is why "its so important to have the children in your room all the time." At times she would like to "push them a little but to make sure they would like to go there first and then I would start driving." This relationship is consistent with the criteria she establishes as a measure of her personal satisfaction when, at the end of the day

> The children have done most of the things that I've wanted them to do. Like I've been successful in getting them to complete the assignments I've given them. Not for the sake of just getting the assignments done--all the assignments have a certain object in mind--but when they are happy.

A consistent interpretation of Cora's definition is one of attempting to provide more than the specified program; of meeting special needs and providing some surprises. The meeting of special needs is illustrated by the manner in which she gave additional attention to Scott who, whilst well cared for physically, lacked emotional support at home. Unobtrusively, and on every possible occasion, Cora provided reassurance in the form of a word, a question, or a small task. Scott's happiness was a special and additional task for Cora. In a similar way other students with special needs had these met in the manner of the teacher adopting a parent part. As she notes "the teacher tries to do as much as she possibly can and... the rôle of teaching is to try and fill as many of the needs as you can." Surprises are in the form of a more general provision of excitement; the fostering of an element of happy uncertainty, and enjoyment. As Cora explains:

> I like the children to like me and I like them to know that I like them...I want them to be happy so they are secure in the room. I like to be thorough...but I like to do a lot of things that are extra so that they enjoy school. So that they say 'We had a great time at school this morning.'"

On Halloween, she presented herself for the day as the midnight witch but, normally, it is something spontaneous. There are times when she will walk in "and the mood will be just right." She will say to herself "Well, this is the morning I'll really do something different with them." Then, "they just forget about the timetable for an hour or two, or half a day or so." This, she believes, "provides a little extra spice" for the children so "they don't get into that routine where all the questions...or all the assignments are always on the board." Such surprises are also important to Cora to counterbalance the excitement the children have in their outside lives. "A lot of them are involved in activities every night of the week" and you have got to keep them challenged. Performance tends to permeate her communications with and presentations to the students. A strong element of herself, as a person and personality, is presented which may take the form of an account of a weekend picnic, a mime of feelings, a discussion with Dean's dog when it was brought to school or the representation of a gum tree with arms raised diagonally, as compared with a spruce, arms sloping downward. Falling snow is indicated by a gentle movement of arms and a slow fluttering of finger tips. Keeping the children involved is an important criterion of judgment and is reflected in her ideal of the student who is interested and willing to learn and doesn't have to be "constantly hounded to get his work done." It is very difficult when you have "children who will just sit in class."

The fostering of respect, involvement and enjoyment of school is translated into procedural and behavioural rules. If a student is disruptive of the class routine, Cora, if concerned, will clarify the nature of the problem with the remainder of the class prior to expressing her concern to the culprit. She strives for the children to have respect for one another and fosters the idea of self-discipline. In social studies lessons the emphasis focuses on students' oral responses and participation. Cora's lessons take a standard form of teacher presentation in the form of a story, a reading, film strip, or pictures followed by discussion, and concludes with students making an appropriate printed record. This form is in contrast to the individual and group work observed in reading, language arts and mathematics. The main feature of the lessons are the questioning sequences used to involve all students. (A transcript of one of Cora's lessons is presented in Apprendix F). Typically, a question is preceded by the student's name; where appropriate, the response is affirmed by Cora but never completely rejected. At times the sequences become like a game for the students. The following extracts illustrate the manner of her questioning.

Cora: Too many trees. Marey!

Marey: There would be animals and they might attack us.

Cora: Animals might attack you. Okay.

Pam: With all the trees you could get lost.

Cora: Pam thinks you could get lost. Marey feels there would be a danger in living in this neighbourhood. Scott.

Cora: No, there is no hospital in Millwoods. They are planning on building one. There is one that starts with an "M". Misericordia.

Pupils: Oh, yes.

Cora: There is one that starts with a "G".

Billy: Let us get this one.

Pupil: General...something. General Hospital.

Cora: Right! There is the General.

The pace, development and effectiveness of questioning sequences is sustained by her encouragement of broad student participation. This involvement and Cora's assessment of a lesson's success are closely correlated to student interest in the materials that are presented. She feels that appropriate material is essential for effective social studies teaching. "They do like social studies. They are interested in different people. It's a shame there isn't enough material at this grade level you can introduce to them." Whenever possible material is made relevant to student experience and, again, the emphasis is on individual involvement as a contribution to the work of the class. On one occasion a student was asked to move to a chair outside the central class group. Order and discipline are important to Cora "but I like them to like themselves and I want them to like our room as a whole and to be close together." In this sense, the organization of the room and its displays are an integral part of Cora's definition of situation. She describes it as improvising.

> I like to have things up for them to see. I think that is important. I like them to feel that they have accomplished something. The classroom should reflect the success the children have experienced...

It could also be interpreted as a means of acculturation of the students into her classroom in a manner that is supportive of outside realities. She describes how, when they first come to her, they are uncertain in a strange environment, but eventually they feel confident to give her advice about what to do and where to put things. Cora takes their advice:

> I let them have a share in it because this is their home for the day...the kids are happy in it...It's got to be intertwined with their own life...It's got to get right into their system to be effective. They'll tell me where I should put the books or they'll ask me if I can put this or put that up for them...If they bring things...(it) has contributed something and then a fuss is made over it... It's important to the class.

This explanation supports the view that the little boy's ghost hanging by a clip from the top of the blackboard is a symbol of, as well as an artifact in, Cora's definition of her situation.

For Cora, it is important to "develop a comfortable atmosphere in the room." For this to be achieved she has "to be involved with her children when she does something and it is necessary for them to be involved with her." The goal of her criteria of judgment is the achievement of what she describes as

> ...a closeness with them so they feel that, if something is wrong, they can really be close to me; more than just a teacher. Because, to me, 'teacher' connotes just a person apart and separate. I like to be part of them. They become my family for the year.

The theme of closeness, of interrelating with children and their life histories, is a central element in Cora's definition of her situation and her criteria of judgment. This theme of "closeness" is interpreted as maintaining a basic mutuality of thinking and feeling between herself and the students and yet maintaining her position as an adult. It is a definition of situation that enables Cora to encompass both the child's world of thought and feeling and the adult world and to reconcile both in her task of inducting the child into the wider culture. Her approach reflects both a consistent concern and identification with individual children and the maintenance of a cohesive and co-operative group identity. This concern for the individual would appear to be in contradiction with the standardized class presentations that characterize Cora's social studies lessons. The apparent conflict may be resolved with reference to her concern with social studies materials as a source of pupil involvement and her concentration on individual and group teaching in reading, language arts and mathematics. In a situation where it is difficult to sustain the more personal style of teaching, high interest materials act as a surrogate to sustain pupil involvement.

Annette

Annette is in her fifties, is married, is neat and elegant in appearance, has a grown up family and has taught for twenty-eight years, not inclusive of a twelve year break after she married, when she "was strictly a housewife with Sunday school, church groups, and so on." She initially completed a one year training program at the normal school which "was all you needed." At this time "there were not that many going to university to take the four years" and "if they did, it was with the intention of teaching at the university." She looks back on the normal school training as "being very, very basic." I wouldn't say the training they gave us helped that much." "They taught you what you were allowed to do, what you weren't allowed to do;" "about the course of study, what readers you used at a certain level and what you would be teaching them in arithmetic at grade levels." "As far as the actual teaching, we did some practice teaching in the classes --that's about all." They "didn't have any philosophy at normal school." It "had to come from within you." It was with this training, and as a teenager, that she took up her first appointment in a rural school. Teaching in this situation was not as she had visualized it and she felt unprepared.

She had "all the grades from one to eight." It was a "poverty-stricken area as was the case with many of the rural schools in the 1940's." "I had taken my schooling and had always lived in the town; her experience had been of "one grade per teacher." "All of a sudden" she found herself "in a one-room school where I had just no facilities." It was a shock to her. "I found that part hard." She "had nothing to work with and no one to turn to." "I enjoyed my first year because everything was new but I just didn't want it." When the school inspector came round Annette told him. "Well, I'm going to finish this year but I don't want it next year." The following year she transferred into a town school and, "from then on teaching was much more what I had expected."

Equivocation or vacillation are not part of Annette's makeup; if she has a concern it is quickly resolved in action; she has "to be kept very busy." After twelve years of marriage, she had a son and a daughter that were growing up, but she felt dissatisfied. Her program of home duties and community work was a busy one "but I wasn't giving myself anything. I found out that unless somebody was paid for doing a job it wasn't classified as necessary or important" --"everything depreciates to the dollar sign." It "was something that had to be satisfied." "It was like a challenge," and she enrolled in summer school to up-grade her qualifications. This involved some adjustment to her social life and the two children had to make some adjustments, but "it had a good effect on their growing years." "They didn't know where anything stayed in the house --but they learnt." They came to realize "that there is more to life than doing what you want." Subsequently, both established themselves in their professions and Annette attributes a measure of their success to their acceptance of personal responsibility, from the time she returned to university. "It had a good effect on their lives."

Working for her Bachelor of Education, by attendance at summer schools and evening classes at the university, "was satisfying" to Annette. In contrast to the normal school, "a professor will usually, if he is presenting the course, put in what he thinks--the philosophy." She enjoyed the courses she chose in early childhood education and the elective anthropology courses. But going back to school "wasn't easy."

For some four years after she returned to teaching, Annette worked as a part-time curricular associate. In this capacity she assisted in the implementation of a system-wide reading program and also taught reading and social studies at the grades two and three levels in an elementary school. "We did some good work in that school." "I was perfectly happy" teaching. "It's more in depth in certain subjects and you don't worry about the rest." "It simplifies," and "for the teacher with experience, it's really great." Towards the end of this period she received an offer to take up an appointment at Robinwood school. "I had to make a decision whether I wanted to be a curricular associate or do away with it and come here." "I didn't think I was enjoying the work of a curricular associate very much. For one thing I felt a lack of a sense of achievement" and "didn't know if I was doing anybody any good." Sometimes, it seemed "the teacher was doing something that was important to her and I...was wasting her time and interfering with the teacher's way of thinking." Other times, "I knew a teacher needed help, and I would assist her in setting up a program" but "when I returned,...nothing would have been done." For Annette, there was "nothing decisive in such work and no feedback; it wasn't satisfying and it wasn't definite." If the administration "had told me to give an in-service here and a talk there, that...would have been something definite." Apart from her period as a curriculum associate, her initial year of teaching in a rural school, and two years of sixth grade, Annette has taught classes at division one level at Robinwood Elementary School.

She describes herself as a driver.

> I really do see myself as a driver. I think I drive children. I believe I get a lot out of children. I am quite particular about a lot of things. I have very definite ideas of what I want to do...I know where I want to go...and I think I have a lot of energy.

Teaching, to Annette "was just something that I had always wanted to do." "There was never anything else in my mind but being a teacher." "I think it was because I could express myself." Not that she is "bossy", but if there was "anything I wanted to put across" then she would have that freedom. Unlike office work "where you are told what to do" and what is expected of you, in the classroom Annette felt she would be free to institute her "program, rules, and so on." This concern with personal teacher freedom, or preference, as a determinant of classroom teaching methods is seen to be juxtaposed with a readiness, on her part, to accept external prescriptions as to the nature of what shall be taught in the classroom and for what purposes. This dichotomy premises her definition of situation and criteria of judgment. As the prescriptions are presented, the definition which is identified is one of maximizing pupil achievement in terms of system determined goals and utilizing prescribed content and personally determined teacher methodologies.

Personal freedom is of central importance to Annette's definition of situation: her "freedom as a teacher to express myself and to express my ideas." She notes, with conviction, that "nobody interferes with what I am doing." "If I want to try something different there isn't anybody who tells me I can't." "I have freedom within my classroom." In her descriptions such freedom connotes the variability of individual instructional methods (the greatest variable in teaching any subject) and the importance of relating instruction to children's needs. Her first test of competence of the teacher is to know what are the children's needs. "When they come into your classroom, a good teacher will, in a short time, be able to read her class." "You have to empathize with the children, but at the same time you are not their pal." In these terms she both interprets and legitimates her freedom to determine how she will teach. Her interpretation is of a limited teacher freedom; freedom that implies, at least in broad terms, that goals are agreed on and decisions have been made about what content shall be taught to whom. This interpretation is supported by her judgments.

Systems wise, Departmental guidelines "tell us, more or less, what to teach." In Annette's view, she is not free to personally teach what she would wish.

> I am told what to do in a way. But the way I present that material is up to me. It's not complete freedom but freedom in my choice of how I am presenting that material.

Her interpretation is that the Department of Education and the Public School Board administrators support teachers but they do lay out guidelines. These, in her view, are important. "If you are going to work within a large system you have to have certain guidelines... certain ropes to go on." This judgment encompasses the desirability of uniformity of program content so that children can transfer with ease from one area of the city to another. Moreover, Annette's interpretation is supportive of a centralized and standardized measurement of learning outcomes:

> ...you have to have some standard...the system must know whether these standardized tests are worthwhile and they have to set some sort of level of achievement for all children.

Within the constraints of such prescriptions and measures of uniformity she defines her professional autonomy: to plan and implement instruction so that children are provided with opportunities to learn predetermined content. This freedom is of central importance to Annette and is reflectively legitimated by its intended outcome which is to maximize learning as measured by system-based tests and standards, "to get the maximum, the potential they have. I believe that I get just about all they can offer." "That's satisfying to me without being harsh. Maybe that's why I get after children when I see them wasting their time." To achieve this outcome, Annette makes a number of judgments in the form of criteria, which both clarify and facilitate the development of her definition of situation. Examples of these judgments are categorized and presented below, but all could be subsumed in terms of efficiency, and would seem more a life view than a pedagogic perspective.

An initial proposition affirmed by Annette is that to make teaching your career, you must have schedules and be organized. She notes that she lives pretty well by the clock and can't be without a schedule, even for her work at home. People who don't work to a schedule are, in her view, always up against crises. They are asked to give a test or present report cards and they are "all in a flutter," because they are not ready. She likes routine, schedules her time and so doesn't find it hard, but has an aversion to "all the little memos you send home, collecting money for field trips... It takes your time away from teaching." Predictability is also important to Annette.

> I don't like things that are unpredictable...I have quite a clear idea where I'm going. In my work and, in fact, in my own life..."

This entails having to know what you are doing a few days ahead of time and also involves long-range planning. For example, in social studies, this involves thinking a month ahead. "Now, where am I taking these children and what is it I am going to do with them?" She also stresses the importance of portioning your time.

> Am I going to finish this section of my arithmetic at this time; am I going to cover social studies by then; am I going to be ready before I start Christmas activities?

Achievement, in terms of "they are learning and I am teaching" in an intended and predictable sense, is the source of her professional satisfaction. The idea is "that I am really giving them something that they are learning." This may take the form of correct pupil response to her questioning, the successful completion of an exercise or work sheet, or most students coping well with a topic test. In the longer term this satisfaction is best illustrated by what Annette used to tell some of the parents:

> It is just like you take a piece of clay and you have got a lump. You start moulding it and moulding it and, at the end of the year, you think to yourself, now I can see my work. That child could neither read nor print, and here, at the end, I've got something to show for my work. That is what I like: I like that finished product feeling...I get good results with my classes.

Annette judges the following lesson plan most effective for her teaching of social studies:

> Introduce the topic, give them information you have planned to relate to the students, ask for their opinions. Oral discussion. Worksheet, story, writing, picture or activity to follow. This reinforces the lesson.

The lessons are crisp and sustain a constant pace or momentum which fits neatly into the scheduled subject time. (A transcript of one of Annette's lessons is presented in Appendix G.) The following extract presents a questioning sequence from a lesson with which Annette was pleased.

Christine:	I'd feel like a city that was over-populated.
Annette:	How about you Carmen?
Carmen:	I would feel like I was so squashed I couldn't see the world.
Annette:	Jamie you just repeat what she said.
Jamie:	(No response)

Annette: You don't know because you were interrupting her. You were so busy talking to Blare and you were interrupting her. Say it again Carmen.

Carmen: I would feel like I was so squashed I couldn't see the whole world.

Annette; You couldn't see the world. And Paula!

Paula: I would feel that you couldn't get out of your house.

Annette: That's a good point. How about you Linda?

Annette comments, at the end of the lesson "Very good today. All right, we'll just have to leave this now children...in a few minutes we'll have ten minutes in the library." Such comments are not atypical. They reflect her concern with making the best use of her time in helping the students learn the skills and knowledge prescribed in the school system guides. Interruptions in the form of student misbehavior or an administrative request cut across this efficiency. Annette is concerned that her students should do their best and be ready for Grade 3. To achieve this they "are going to work in the style I want them to in here, because this is my plant." The criteria that are pervasive of Annette's criteria of judgment are oriented towards techniques of control: schedules, guidelines, direction, predictability.

The Interaction of Teacher and Innovative Proposal

In symbolic interactionist theory, self indications allow an individual to interpret reality and to act on that basis. Self indications, in turn, depend on the individual's definition of the situation which may be called a perspective. Accordingly, in this study, Cora and Annette's self indications or interpretations of the curricular change proposal are best understood in terms of their definitions of situation; as a process by which each teacher interprets the proposal against her ordered view of the world.

Cora

The description of Cora's interpretation of the curricular change proposal is organized around two themes: (1) surprise and (2) disenchantment.

Surprise

"It's great!" "It has all the stuff in it they want you to teach." Cora's initial reaction, after examining the contents of the box and glancing through the Teacher's Guide, is one of pleasant surprise. "All your materials are there and you don't have to do a lot of extra work." This Kanata Kit 2 is different; "it looks workable;" "a good concise way of teaching a particular unit." This kit "approaches the subject...much the way that I would like to approach it." "A lot of the materials I have work in very well with this." It "starts out with their own community and...leads them...into a different neighbourhood." It provides opportunities "for comparing advantages and disadvantages...likes and dislikes." "It's well planned" and "you know exactly where you are going... what you want to do." It "can lead you into different studies if the children...are keen." You will be able to "adapt as you need to." It gives "a good picture of what to do and how to do it." Moreover, it provides children with "something basic and in common."

This kit ensures that when children move "there are still basic things that go with them." Cora is enthusiastic:"I think its great." "A kit like this can revitalize you and really get you going again and thinking in different directions." Cora matches her self indications with the criteria that underpin her definition of situation, formulating a judgment of surprised enthusiasm, for the potential consequences of implementing Kanata Kit 2 in her classroom. Her surprise is understandable, as her judgment was in marked contrast to previous judgments based on her perception of curricular change proposals.

For Cora, change proposals involve a process of adaptation rather than change. That is change proposals are modified to meet her definition of her situation, and do not involve a change in the criteria that support this matrix of value judgments. Typically, her interpretation of the change process is of a curricular package imposed by unknown administrators working through the organizational structure of the education system. "It means that a group of people have got together and they are...pushing...their own ideas and theories." It is a product "all bundled up and neat" and "sometimes that's all it means." Her interpretation is one of products that have to be sold; products that "don't contain enough in them." "You have to go and do the hard work to get them going." To Cora, the process does not have relevance to her situation. "They follow along behind our neighbour next door" and "therefore they are constantly looking for...change." Sometimes the theories "are way above and beyond what should be expected of children."

"They pilot a lot of the projects...to try and see if the theories will work and weed them out" but "what works for one person won't work for somebody else." There is too much emphasis on process: "the process of acquiring information; the process of being able to solve things...to research things" rather than "knowledge." "I usually adapt the kit to my way of doing things." "I try and get the information and the objectives that they have got and...do it the way I would normally teach in my room."

Cora's surprise and her need to reconcile favourable self indications of an innovative curricular proposal, in contrast to previously unfavourable ones, focuses sharply on teaching materials. "When I first saw it...I thought, oh good, here is some film strips and some books and materials and maps and things." These materials, in this setting, are viewed by Cora in the nature of a trade-off by administrators. In a situation where teachers haven't the time to develop new programs and administrators are anxious for change, "the kits come out, hopefully, with the idea that you... have some material with which you can start." It is plausible to view Cora's self indications of Kanata 2 as the product of matching her criteria of appropriateness against the features of the kit as specified in the Teacher's Guide; that is not the case. She made a decision that the teaching materials would be supportive of her definition of her situation, not that the assumptions, procedures and orientation of the kit would match her definition. The materials "concerned me" and "deceived me from the total content of the unit itself. I really just glanced at it and liked what I saw." Her judgment, and the manner of its making are consistent with the implicit, experience-oriented criteria that comprise her definition of situation. She judged the potential consequences of implementing Kanata Kit 2 with minimal evidence and experience. Her surprise resulted in an adjustment of her interpretation of the curriculum development process to the extent that she viewed the provision of materials as being helpful to her situation. Her judgment did not result in a re-interpretation of her definition of situation nor any systematic evaluation of Kanata Kit 2.

Disenchantment

"I still think that basically it is a good program except..." The "excepts" establish the criteria of judgment and embody the set of ideas that form Cora's perspective or definition of Kanata Kit 2. This perspective was established in the interaction of kit and class participants during the process of implementing the kit. The "excepts" in this way are descriptive of the process by which Cora's initial enthusiasm turned to disenchantment with the innovative proposal: the manner in which her self indications came into conflict with her initial judgment of the kit, and finally, the rejection of the kit as inappropriate to her definition of her class situation. Her criteria of judgment affirm her more problematic, intuitive and humanistic view of the classroom and its participants, and reject the control, predictability, and problem-solving orientation of Kanata Kit 2.

Cora likes to be "guiding" the children. "Teaching, talking, reading, and discussing" with the children is important. Presenting a serendipity of materials, she is able to sustain the children's interest, and participation, by the judicious use of questions to reinforce a pattern of correct response. With Kanata Kit 2 "the emphasis is on me" but "the children are not involved." "I find myself striving to get that hypothesis...from them." She found that she had "to give leading questions" and "draw it out of them." You have "to ask three things to get on the right track." It "locks you into one activity all the time."

Repetition is important to Cora because young children feel secure in predictable situations,but they also need to be interested and involved; there is a need for some surprises. The Teacher's Guide however is "the same right through:" "the same steps, the same procedures, the same activities and you approach the next one exactly the same." "You have to do a lot of talking." "Talking! Talking! Talking!" "They sit and gradually...you see them...falling off." "Maybe some child was trying to express a point and took too long to express it...and the others dropped off in interest." They need to be "taking part" and to be involved in "physical action. Their attention span is short and the point needs to be made quickly and quite vividly for them to get it." The unit is "belaboured," lacks "surprises" and contains "nothing interesting,...different,...exciting; it's all the same routine." It's a "lecture-type", "discussion-type thing all the time." "In their books I would use more picture-type things...they can relate to, and have them write a sentence or two of their own about it." It is "too repetitious" and "boring" and "doesn't capture their imagination."

The "different," "unique," "unusual" and special are the source of a "lively" child interest for Cora. "Pictures of world neighbours can get the children keenly interested in different ways of living." Differences have "to be very big for young children to see them." Then you "can show them that we have that kind of difference within our province." A sense of immediacy and relevance is important to children's learning but there must be a source of intrinsic interest. The ideas in Kanata Kit 2 were "too abstract. The students cannot see the difference between the size of Medicine Hat, Toronto and Edmonton." "It's like a little child looking at a whole bunch of tall people. He has to decide that he is taller, she's taller, he's wider and taller, that one is shorter. When he looks at the total population they are all big people. He is small. Down here. For young children all cities are big." There should "be some sort of cohesive idea but there is more in a unit on neighbourhood than that particular issue." "A person loses sight of the other things if they centralize their thinking on one issue."

For Cora, children should be presented with the specific. They should be able to give a specific response with confidence. This confidence encourages participation and fosters involvement based on mutual respect. "The hypotheses and the concepts they want covered in this kit are beyond the kids at this level." "If you are going to have to put answers into their mouths, and if you are going to lead them to make the right answers you want them to come to, then I don't think its achieving its purpose." Children, in Cora's definition, "like to go in a safe secure path." They don't like to have "too many options given them, because then they get confused and are not able to cope with it." "Home," in the children's view, "is supposed to be my home." "It's not good enough because I really want another kind of home." The children were uncomfortable and disturbed by the unit.

Cora's central theme of "closeness" has the premise that children should like their work and enjoy school. With Kanata Kit 2 "they had a hard time." They became "frustrated" and "did not want to do it." Her definition of situation that encompasses both the child's world of thought and feeling and the adult world was disrupted. The children lost confidence, were not involved and the basic mutuality of thinking and feeling that characterized her definition and everyday classroom interaction was subject to tension and challenge. Cora's balance of presentation, discussion and bookwork changed to extended questioning sequences with little time for bookwork. Classroom procedures such as bathroom breaks were questioned, children became less attentive. Extrinsic rewards such as "breaking early" became important, and the excitement of social studies activities diminished. The kit "presented an adult view" which left Cora "on the outside;" "they weren't really with me." "It put me in that role and I was not comfortable with it because I like to be involved with my children and they like to be involved with me." It was "a foreign way of teaching for me." The "strategies were not mine." "Maybe, when the people make up these units,...they don't think they really put a burden...

on you...They impose a burden on me that I feel I need to get it done because that was what was prescribed."

Annette

The description of Annette's interpretation of the curricular change proposal is organized around two themes: (1) Will it work?; (2) A good start.

Will It Work?

When Annette first saw Kanata Kit 2 she commented, "It doesn't look a very long study...for the size of the box." "It's all empty. You know they could just as easily have put it into a smaller container." She thought, "What a waste of space. Here is all this cardboard and all these little film strips are just tacked upon the top. That was the physical appearance of it. You get six ounces of rice crispies and you get a box like that." In a direct practical way her initial concerns centred on the manner it could become part of her classroom program. "It's a very concise...complete study...but ...you need to have them understand what a neighbourhood is before you go from your own neighbourhood and in your own city to another part of Canada." How would her students respond to the content and materials? "Neighbourhoods? That's a concept that I think very few in grade two are going to grasp. I can see it right now." Some of the children are being bussed in from another neighbourhood. "I don't think all the children quite know that we should call them neighbours." It will be "very difficult trying to say that your neighbourhood is this, but somebody else's is that, and yet it is the same." Her interest was keen in viewing the activity sheets. "Things I like." "Things I don't like." "That's a good page--an interesting page." "That's a good basis." The map was a good feature. "If you put it up, I've found in other years, in no time they know the provinces." They will "be able to cope with neighbours." "Many of them go for lunch to their neighbour's place. Mom is working or something. So this part will be fine." The cost of field trips is a concern but she felt that in any case it is part of their normal program. Hypothesizing from the six study prints would present no problems to her students. "They would get that from simple deduction." She was concerned about time for social studies as "there are many interruptions." "There is either an announcement or you are listing names," but she felt it would be appropriate to teach the kit in November. "It does take quite a bit of background with six and seven-year-olds just to develop the concept of neighbourhoods and neighbours." Annette's other concerns tended to be quite specific and concerned organization, procedural details, the manner in which the kit would facilitate the students' learning, and the effectiveness of her social studies program. Two other specific concerns were the cost of the kits and the authorship of the stories, but her specific concern is "Will it work in my classroom?" Annette is reflectively critical of the work of curriculum developers.

"I see many of them as teachers who are not in the classroom. They are going by theory and thinking what children should know." Theory is important to Annette "because that is the basis, your philosophy of your school program." However, too many developers operate at "a different level from the classroom." "They are not regular classroom teachers or, if they have been, they have been there a short time." Units such as this "are not written by classroom teachers who are actively engaged in teaching." To plan an effective program for grade two, Annette is convinced, you need to be teaching grade two. Moreover, it's not sufficient to say "That would be nice for grade two." The important questions are, "Is it practical" and "Will it work?"

Annette, despite this skepticism of curriculum developers' skills, perceives the Kanata Kits as a response of administrators to social pressure for more Canadian content in school programs. The children "know about Davy Crockett, but they don't know anything about Louis Riel." Further, administrators "want to standardize some level of achievement for children at certain grade levels... instead of giving a teacher a free hand like we have had in the past." Her interpretation is that the two messages are interrelated. "You must standardize...like you do in math...reading." "Why shouldn't you in social studies?" "The children should know more"..."and know more about Canada."

A Good Start

Annette scheduled the Kanata Kit unit to end on November 15 and she met her schedule. In teaching the unit "there were some things that I wasn't happy with. Things I just left out. That I felt I could do in a few words instead of taking a lesson"..."just a few words to the class...I could bring the same point across... Something that perhaps wouldn't particularly concern the children." For Annette, change proposals involve a process of re-interpretation rather than a change in her definition of situation. She follows "the guidelines" but "I make judgments as I go along." Such judgments are supportive of her concern with efficiency and equated with making up for interruptions. "I don't see any need for going and filling in the one with dots." (Student Master No. 4). "It's been made already, so why repeat it. We haven't had time because we have so many interruptions. I'm sure that you can see that in our school." Interruptions for Annette include professional development days, assemblies, rehearsals for a school concert and any activity that takes from her teaching time with her class. Her central concern is maximizing class achievement, and she is assiduous in providing individual assistance to the students and in checking and assessing their work. Where the kit departed from what she felt most appropriate, she disregarded it but, nevertheless, maintained the spirit of the kit in terms of her definition of her situation. "See like these 'why' questions. Why does each family live in their own house on an acreage? Well that doesn't make any sense to me. You have got to live in something." In such situations Annette ignored Kanata Kit 2. At other times she changed the specified material. "This chart I am going to use but I am going to use it differently than what they say. I'm making the charts." "That isn't what they set out...but that is the way I want to do it." Repetition is not a problem. "Showing film strips four times it says here. I don't think you need that much...I showed it in an afternoon."

Annette's role as "driver" is central to her definition of situation. In social studies, this involves an emphasis on transmitting content in the form of information, rather than more general ideas. The stories, film strips and pictorial material "lacked background information" which created incongruence with her teaching method. "I don't think there is one lesson where the teacher can put some questions on the board and say, 'Here I want you to answer these ." The kit is "geared towards a teacher who likes working... in more of an oral way...than a written way...say making a booklet or making notes." Annette retained her lesson format and maintained her directive role, but her desire for specificity of student response led, at times, to extended questioning sequences and restlessness among the students.

Annette liked the unit "quite well". "I would certainly do it again. I don't know if I would change that much." "We have got to get our children to know more about their country." She is "willing to go along with something new." It could be a "spin off" to make her own social studies more interesting. "It's a start and it gives you a little more to think about."

The manner in which Annette re-interpreted Kanata Kit 2 to facilitate her personal definition of maximizing student achievement and utilizing prescribed content and personally determined methodologies is reflected in the following note written in response to the query: What do you mean when you say "a teacher should grow?"

> A teacher should be willing to change methods, ideas, materials that go with changes in education. Social change is slow but children have to be educated to be ready for alternatives.
>
> Teachers should be able to choose what they consider favourable qualities in a program, discard the obsolete, attempt new methods and suggestions as outlined by curriculum writers--"Try something new."

The Responses of Two Practitioners to a Curriculum Change Proposal

The descriptions of the two teachers' interpretations of the curricular change proposal reveal assumptions and rationales that differ markedly from the stance and theoretical orientation of the proposal, that has been identified as technological. To the extent that they differ, each teacher's interpretation presents a competing view of her situation, of the process of curriculum development and implementation, of what is taught and how it is taught.

The innovative proposal presents an idealized model of curriculum which defines teaching by specifying procedures and tasks which are designed to achieve predictable outcomes in terms of pupil learning in a wide range of geographical locations. Kanata Kit 2 is "Dedicated to the Students of Alberta." It is predicated on explicit knowledge, and views the teacher as the implementer of specified messages. It is representative of action that is planned free from the constraints of specific situations. The interpretations of the two teachers are presented in individualistic terms which emphasize the uniqueness of each classroom and the central role of personal preference. For both teachers, the role of the teacher was of central importance "because it depends upon what she puts across what the child will glean from it." As one of them noted, "I am going to be teaching with the materials in a different way to my neighbour...I'm not saying I'm right or that she's wrong. But, for my class and for me, that's the way I want to do it." They are interpretations, largely based on implicit knowledge and experience, which give meaning to their daily tasks. Each teacher is able to justify her classroom autonomy in terms of what is taught and how it is taught. Each interpretation provides a rationale for rejecting the technical and intellectual control explicit to the method and content of the curricular proposal. As one teacher commented, "The children come first with me, not so much the kit." Neither teacher was going to use or do things "that would not be of value to the children or helpful to their teaching." The complete acceptance of the proposal would, in a real sense, negate their image of themselves; their definition of situation and "interpretation of man and the world." For one teacher the attempt to utilize predetermined procedures and materials disrupted the spontaneity of interest and response that supported the classroom atmosphere necessary to her teaching style. In differing terms the same procedures and materials impeded the other teacher's lesson procedure and obstructed her interpretation of maximizing pupil learning. For one teacher the implementation process created personal tension and appeared to challenge her self image; for the other personal annoyance and a feeling of obstruction. Materials that lacked intrinsic interest and ideas that were too abstract created problems for both teachers and students. The teachers tended to be critical of the specific in terms of this film strip or that student activity, but to the observer the conflict was implicit and pervasive of the implementation process. This is not to judge the teachers nor the innovative proposal, but to note that each of the teachers and the unit developers in intellectualizing their ideas in the form of the teaching kit brought to their task different perspectives and orientations. Teaching subsumes knowing what is best for your students; curriculum developers bear the presumption of knowing what students ought to be doing. From the viewpoint of these two teachers "the people that put it together weren't really looking at kids in grade two, how changeable they are, how one thing will impress them one day and the next thing will change their minds." Tension and diminished self-worth is inherent to the process of curriculum renewal where such disparities exist. There is the strong feeling that

> When the people make up these units, they don't think about that kind of thing; that they really put a burden... on you. By saying, well we want you to cover this and we want you to get these objectives. Then, they don't realize possibly that they sort of tie you down to it. They impose a burden on me that I feel I need to get it done because that was what was prescribed.

The resolution of such tension is, in this sense, a product of the implementation process: variations of classroom practice that encompass rejection, adaptation, or re-interpretation of the procedures incorporated in the innovative curricular proposal. For one teacher the implementation of the proposal confirmed previous judgments of the inappropriateness of curriculum development procedures. For the other it confirmed a lack of concern by theorists for the concerns and situations of the practitioner.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

This study was designed to describe and explain two teachers' perspectives of a curricular change proposal. There is evidence from the literature that an increased awareness of the dimensions of teacher perspectives of change would help provide a more realistic basis for considering proposals for change in social studies curriculum and instruction. Given the basic assumptions of symbolic interaction and the need for descriptive data on the change process from the classroom teacher's perspective, it was judged appropriate to conduct a field study using the participant observation method. Therefore, to catch the process by which the teachers encountered, interpreted, and ordered their view of the curricular change proposal, the researcher placed himself in the teachers' environments, took a limited role in some classroom activities, and observed the teachers from as many vantage points as possible. This final chapter presents the conclusions, implications and recommendations.

Conclusions

The study was developed around three exploratory questions. The questions are presented and some propositions and summary responses clarify the conclusions of the study. The exploratory questions were:

1. How do teachers perceive communications intended to modify or improve their performance?
2. What are the constructs that underlie such teacher perceptions?
3. What is the relationship between these dimensions and the evaluative process by which teachers make decisions regarding the implementation of change in school programs?

1. How do teachers perceive communications intended to modify or improve their performance?

It would be inappropriate to generalize from this case study of two teachers but the following postulates seem to be significant in terms of change communications.

Teachers may perceive these communications as:

- intrusions by anonymous, impersonal administrators into the sensitive self-contained social world of the classroom.
- saleable products generally containing little substance.
- impositions on the teacher's time.
- the sensitive response of administrators to societal pressure.
- the insensitive response of administrators to the situation of the teacher.
- the insensitive response of administrators to individual teacher priorities.
- the insensitive response of administrators to the needs and interests of specific groups of children.
- the responsible actions of system administrators to perceived societal needs.
- a source of professional growth and improvement.
- misinterpretations by curriculum developers.
- the products of curriculum developers who lack understanding of classrooms.

- no relevance to classroom situations.
- no relationship to the competence of the teacher.
- no threats to teacher status.

The tentative propositions drawn from the interpretations of the two teachers present somewhat conflicting perceptions of change communications. For example, they are perceived as a "source of professional growth and improvement" and yet have "no relevance to classroom situations." This apparent dissonance can be accounted for by the differing perspectives of the teachers. The first proposition is consistent with the perspective that interprets education as a bureaucratic system. It is inconsistent with the mutualistic interpretation of the classroom situation. Moreover, although both teachers were in agreement that innovative proposals have "no relevance to classroom situations," their reasons for thinking so differed. One judged such communications as lacking classroom knowledge; the other interpretation perceived the messages as intrusions into the self-contained social setting. It would, however, seem more realistic to speculate that the propositions represent a number of constructs which influence teachers' perceptions of communications intended to modify or improve teacher performance. It could be further speculated that individual teacher perceptions would tend to range along a continuum for each of the possible dimensions.

2. What are the constructs that underlie such teacher perceptions?

Two differing patterns of related ideas were revealed as underpinning the teachers' perceptions. These constructs established an interpretive framework and criteria of judgment for their decision-making.

i. One pattern encompasses a set of interrelated ideas which represent a core of the teacher's thinking, a set of assumptions about the teaching process. One assumption is that school work should come from the children's lives and be, as much as possible, connected with their everyday living and interests. Second, the teacher believes school work could be made an important part of the children's lives by the fostering of a responsive, supportive, and predictable classroom atmosphere. Third, the teacher is committed to the belief that the teacher should relate individually to the children and teach them on the basis of their individual needs in a holistic way. Fourth, the teacher views the children's interest as a critical factor in the promotion of effective learning and the means by which her classroom and instructional goals are achieved with a minimum of effort; then the children have completed their set tasks and are happy. The child tends to be viewed as malleable to the formative influence of the teacher. In social studies the approach is essentially right-answer centred. High interest materials emphasizing the unique and different establish a wide basis of student response. The more familiar is made more meaningful by contrast to the differences of other settings. The consistent affirmation of the responses reinforces pupil involvement and fosters the notion of respect for a contributor to the work of the class. The conception of education carries with it the idea of a close personal relation between teacher and child and between each of the children. The ideas present a style of teaching characterized by spontaneity, flexibility and personal responsiveness. The classroom is presented as a socially autonomous cultural setting which assists the child to interpret and be inducted into the wider cultural world. The ideas present a view of teaching and learning which rejects structured procedures and materials and more autonomous inquiry-type approaches to social studies curriculum and instruction. Detailed planning is presented as inhibiting of desirable social studies teaching, and external prescriptions are viewed as irrelevant or disruptive of the classroom social setting.

ii. This pattern of ideas presents a set of assumptions that view schools as a bureaucratic system designed to prepare children for further education and adult life. An initial assumption is that the school is subject to external control in the form of curriculum guides which tell the teacher what is to be taught. This control is associated with pre-determined expectations of pupil achievement in the form of standardized tests and levels of achievement. Teaching is therefore viewed as a response to external control and direction in meeting the goals of the educational system as measured by system standards. The teacher is therefore responsible for the transmission of pre-determined content, and students are presented as passive recipients of the specified knowledge and skills. The goal of educational efficiency is to maximize this pupil achievement as a preparation for the next grade in the school. Teachers in this manner are responsible for processing children through the school system. The emphasis in education is thus on the program rather than the student or the teacher. The teacher will teach prescribed content but is free to determine the methodology of transmitting this content. This personal freedom to determine how the program will be taught is presented as the source of the teacher's professional satisfaction. The success of such personally determined methods is equated with student achievement of the set standards. Methods and procedures are described in terms of schedules, content to be covered and standards to be achieved in the manner of personal efficiency rather than normative practice. Students' needs are viewed with concern and are identified with subject achievements. Teacher presentation is didactic and designed to challenge students to be diligent in their work and to gain the satisfaction of recognized achievement goals. Unresponsive or disruptive students are categorized as "immature" or "lazy" and may come from unfavourable home situations. The ideas present a description of a teacher that is well adapted to the acceptance of system prescriptions. Change messages are incorporated into the teacher's definition of situation; specified content is taught but the methods and procedures are presonally determined and reflect the teacher's interpretation of efficiency and definition of implementation.

3. What is the relationship betweeen these dimensions and the evaluative process by which teachers make decisions regarding the implementation of change in school programs?

The underlying constructs establish the teachers' definition of situation or their view of the teaching world. They provide the interpretive frameworks for judgments leading to actions that support and sustain their perspectives. These constructs in this interpretive sense are the lenses through which the teachers viewed and evaluated the proposal. One lens is directed to a view of the child's world; the other is more sharply focused on program goals. The interpretive frameworks of both teachers led them to judge the proposal to be inappropriate in ways that were reflective of their definitions of situation. There were contradictions in the implementation of the change proposal, and this reflected the fact that the technological orientation of the proposal was not matched by the perspectives of the teachers.

Implications

The study involved teachers in two classrooms. It is therefore inappropriate to generalize from this case study to the world of teaching; it is possible, however, to suggest some implications from the worlds of these two teachers for curriculum developers, teacher educators, subject consultants and educational administrators. The teachers worked at developing and maintaining a classroom setting which was meaningful to them and consistent with their interpretation of social studies curriculum and instruction. What the teachers were trying to do was revealed as their definition of situation. This was their perspective and the means by which they interpreted and made sense of their world and of communications intended to modify or improve their performance. These communications were perceived by the teachers as what "they" (Department and system administrators) were trying to do. It became clear that the teachers interpreted and used the change proposal of this study in a way which matched their definition of classroom situation. Thus, where the proposal was judged incongruent, it was rejected, adapted or re-interpreted to achieve agreement with their perspectives. The process of re-interpretation was seen to involve a redefinition of perceived incongruities and resulted in a disparity between what the teachers said they were doing and what they were doing in teaching the change proposal. The teachers interpreted and used the change proposal in terms of the assumptions, beliefs, attitudes and values which supported their classroom perspectives. Implementation of the change proposal in this study did not involve teaching the change message as communicated, but rather, teaching the message as interpreted from a classroom perspective.

Myths of Curriculum Development and Implementation

Curriculum development and implementation for the two teachers meant much more than "marketing" materials as implied by the producer-consumer metaphor of Kanata Kit 2, nor is it explicable in terms of the theory practice dichotomy. The teachers demonstrated a strong, although not always consciously held, theoretical stance for their decision-making. They had established theories and rationales that emphasized tacit or implicit knowledge based largely on teaching and life experience. They judged the more explicit formal knowledge of curriculum developers, as specified for example in processes, procedures, sequencing of activities and specification of objectives in Kanata Kit 2, as being inadequate to the task of understanding or meeting the needs of their day-to-day situation. Their reactions can be interpreted as a response to the disruption of ordered classroom procedures, but such explanations tend to accept as given the "life world" of the teacher. The study indicated that a teaching unit or curricular program is more than a list of teaching procedures and materials. It is also a set of beliefs, including underlying assumptions and implied roles, which often may not be stated and may not be in keeping with teacher perspectives but which do have implications for the commitments teachers will give to the program. More than this, it makes clear that effective curriculum development and implementation involves understandings, perceptions and individual perspectives which may not match between developers and teachers; more importantly, it may involve fundamental irreconcilable views of the nature of human beings and social reality. As an example of this irreconcilability Downey (1975) concluded that the 1971 social studies program failed to be implemented because teachers were unable to accommodate its value orientation.

The literature and the study supported the conclusion that curriculum development has, from the teachers' perspectives, presented a developer's bias, a bias that has led those who seek to improve social studies curriculum and instruction to ask the wrong questions and to emphasize inappropriate aspects of the process of educational change. Too often, the question has been, "How can we change teachers? " or "How can we get these materials into those social studies classrooms?" The emphasis has been on the developer's perspectives and the process of dissemination and diffusion. This approach fails to recognize that the process of teacher change is a more complex and longer term process than the diffusion of instructional materials. How a teacher teaches is a critical aspect of this complexity and strongly influences what is taught. Too often, curriculum theorists have assumed that problems of curriculum change are such that their solution lies in the discovery of logistic procedures that provide a rational method for deciding on content. By concentrating on rational method, curriculum theorists have neglected to show how change proposals are translated into personal teaching practice. Moreover, as in the case of Kanata Kit 2, by focusing on the selection of content and specified procedures they have overlooked the fact that what is designed must be governed by understandings of the milieus within which curricular materials and procedures are to be implemented. Curriculum development has proceeded seemingly in isolation from the process of implementation. This isolation seems to occur as a result of developers focusing on the ideal and attempting to create a universal set of experiences for teachers and children. This overcommitment to the rationalist-positivistic approach has fostered a search for the theory of curriculum rather than the development of alternatives more open to theoretical propositions which would meet the diversity of multiple contexts in which teachers operate. Developers of Kanata Kit 2 present a single perspective of "Canadian Neighbourhoods," how and what should be taught to Grade 2 students in Alberta elementary schools; they present a blueprint of what should or ought to be taught and to whom. To the teachers the kit represented the theoretical perspectives of developers that were both intrusive and irrelevant to their conceptions of social studies curriculum and instruction in the setting of "Canadian Neighbourhoods." Their theoretical constructs and classroom autonomy were sufficiently powerful to overcome such intrusions. Teachers have theories that underpin their classroom practices and these theories are strong enough to withstand the development and diffusion of expensive learning resource kits.

Recommendations

Program Implementation

> Ideas about change have always seemed to divide men into two polarizing groups. Some believe that in order to change, man must change his outer reality...Others say that regardless of how much one changes...the external world of men, unless one can make that change reach the inner man, one will not succeed. (Rudolf Ekstein. Towards Walden III. Reiss-Davis Clinic Bulletin 1, 1974, p. 13. Cited in Goodlad, 1976, p. 168.)

If the proposition is accepted that success or failure of program implementation may reside, in part, in the perspectives held by teachers, then there are some important implications for the process of implementation. First, implementation should provide for the development of inter-subjectivity[1] concerning the perspectives of a program. Ideally, implementation would include shared understanding among participants of the pre-suppositions, values and assumptions which underlie a program. If participants understand these, then they have a basis for rejecting, accepting or modifying a program in their school, community and class situations. Implementation in this way would be viewed as an on-going construction of a shared reality by participants through their interaction with one another within the program.

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[1] A proposition developed by Walter Werner. Implementation: The Role of Belief. Paper presented to an invitational conference on implementation hosted by the University of British Columbia and Simon Fraser University, September 28, 1979.

Second, the achievement of inter-subjectivity may be viewed in terms of implementation tasks. An initial task is to have participants understand the implicit beliefs which underlie a program. A further task is to have practitioners clarify some of the beliefs which guide their own practice. This self-knowledge provides a basis for interpreting discrepancies between teachers and program. Finally, practitioners should be assisted to negotiate discrepancies between their own beliefs and those implied by the program.

Third, if programs are based upon beliefs which are understood and shared in varying degrees by teachers, and if implementation tasks are to facilitate this understanding and negotiation of belief, then dialogue should be integral to implementation activities. Opportunities should be given groups of teachers to periodically discuss on an on-going basis the program and their experiences within it, thereby clarifying and sharing beliefs amongst themselves. Through dialogue their reality is shaped, maintained and modified; through language their experiences are ordered.

Research

The study generates a number of questions concerning the nature of teachers' perspectives of change. Would other teachers respond to a change proposal in a similar manner to the teachers of this study? How would the teachers respond to a proposal in a differing situation? Are teachers' responses to change determined largely by the life characteristics of the individual? These are but a few of the questions which suggest a need for continued research on teacher perspectives of change proposals.

Of particular relevance to social studies curriculum in Alberta is the need for research to enhance intersubjectivity in perspective implementation. This has been identified as the major obstacle to the successful implementation of social studies programs. For example, it was concluded that for Alberta "...that no depth of scholarship, no technical excellence, no classroom expertise will serve the needs of the new...program unless the personality and the disposition of the teacher are supportive of its intents" (Downey, 1975, pp. 29-30). There would seem to be a lack of awareness on the part of teachers, parents and students of the perspective underlying the program and the realities thus imposed upon teachers and students. Differing perspectives held by users may be hindering more complete program implementation in Alberta. How can the viewpoints of programs and that of various program users be reconciled to a greater extent? How is a program perspective interpreted in a situation of perspective differences? Is it desirable to implement a specific theoretical stance and orientation or should program users be encouraged to interpret and use a program in terms of their perspectives or the shared perspectives of their situation? Implementation of programs may need to be based on a fuller understanding of perspectives.

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APPENDIX A

TEACHER CAREER MODEL INTERVIEW

TEACHER CAREER MODEL INTERVIEW*

CAREER: Pre-teaching career alternatives	Prior occupational choices, training, work experience; considerations in their selection and abandonment; levels of commitment to them.
CAREER: Professional choice	When and why first considered becoming a teacher; conditions for choice and strength of commitment; significant others as models; identifying own aptitudes and interests.
CAREER: Specialization	Teaching elementary school versus teaching at other levels of schooling (accidental, experimental, deliberate). How choice made (conditions, models). Early conceptions, images of work in that area.
IDEOLOGY, PHILOSOPHY: Pre-teaching	Very earliest conceptions of teaching; teacher roles, models, and assessment of their efficacy.
TEAMWORK:	The teacher's role vis-a-vis other teachers, auxiliaries, administrators, parents, community groups.

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*The model is derived from "The Health Professional Interview: Career Model" (Schatzman and Strauss, 1973, pp. 77-80).

PROFESSIONAL: Training	Chronological listing of pre-service and in-service teacher education institutions attended. Brief description of teaching philosophy of each; relate his/her developing ideology to each. What teaching roles was he/she able to perform or see others perform (developing role concepts)?
CAREER: School choices	In-service teaching experience; where and why there? Probe for alternatives--searching for "right" place. Bring career to last point in time and place before present one; also ideological point.
CAREER: School teaching	What brought him/her here? What brought him/her to this school? What did he/she know of it in advance? What was he/she told and led to expect about the work he/she would do here?
INSTITUTION: Ideology	What did he/she know in advance of the philosophy of this school; also the limitations of the school's requirements for his/her teaching.

INSTITUTION: Teamwork	First observations and impressions of teaching colleagues: What they did and what they claimed competence in. Did he/she accept their practices and claims?
PROFESSION: School tasks	Teaching tasks when first came, and those which developed over time. Were these forced upon, seized by, or proferred him/her? Rundown of daily, weekly tasks and responsibilities. What claims did he/she make, tacitly or forcefully? (Claims based on training, experience, tradition, legality, operational necessity, talent and desire).
TEAMWORK: Teaching role School	How do other personnel modify his/her work and his/her conception of what he/she ought to be doing? Of his/her tasks, which are done reluctantly, which positively? Which did he/she never dream he/she would be doing? Does this school and its personnel allow him/her to be the kind of teacher he needs or wants to be?
IDEOLOGY: Teaching	Currently how would he/she describe the effective teacher? What contribution, if any, do others make to the effectiveness of the work of the teacher?

INSTITUTION: Organization Organizational philosophy	How does the respondent view the organizational procedures of the school: pupil selection; admission procedures; assessment of pupil progress; grouping of pupils within the school; organization of school time.
CAREER: Teaching Ideology School	How does he/she see teaching in the future: What will it be like in 10-15 years? Methods, schools, organization?
	What of him/herself? Would he/she predict, realistically and/or wistfully, where he/she will be in 10-15 years, and what he/she will be doing?

APPENDIX B

TRANSCRIPT OF TEACHER INTERVIEW, CORA

Date: November 13

Time: 8.00 a.m.

Place: Cora's classroom

Topic: Cora's perception of Kanata Kit 2

RESEARCHER: Would you like to start off Cora? I'm not too sure where we are.

CORA: Well, I was just thinking that the kit itself seems to go over a lot of the same kind of thing for each of the different neighbourhoods. I think that possibly it gets a little bit. . . after a while they get to the point where they are bored with the same sort of questions. They know what you are going to ask them. They start getting themselves ready for that , which might not be bad in a way, but on the other hand, some of them will start getting a little bored. They'll say, "Oh yeah! It's the same old thing." So I think in that situation the kit could have been a little different. Maybe a different approach to it by having all the different cities. . . I wouldn't know, I haven't given it much thought. . . how to do it, to get the ideas but, but not to repeat so much the same procedure. Too much repetition can destroy the good that you have done with it.

Some of the steps I would do a little different. Like I was telling you yesterday about that. . . I would read the story first and then show the film strip, whereas they have it reversed. Possibly that was just an error in constructing this. Okay. Here (referring to Teacher's Guide) you show the students Medicine Hat and then you read the story. I think that should be reversed because, like I pointed out to you, there were things in the story that he referred to in the film strip. I wondered about that when I started showing the film strip. Because I hadn't really read the story, to be honest with you, and I wondered about that when it came up and he referred to something, 'as I told you before'. This is the cement playground. Then I thought, what is he talking about? Then it turned out that it was in the story. So, I'm going to reverse that.

I think that there are so many. . . for instance, they ask you "Where did the children play" and "Why are there so many children to play with"; this kind of thing. I think they dwell too long on. . . and, if it's covered in every community it will be a little bit heavy for them. It is going to get boring.

RESEARCHER: Heavy handed?

CORA: It is going to be belaboured: no surprises, nothing interesting, nothing different, nothing exciting; it's all the same routine kind of thing. This is the weakness of the whole unit I think. I think it. . .well I shouldn't say weakness. . . but this is one of the things I've found.

RESEARCHER: As far as you are concerned?

CORA: As far as I am concerned, even teaching it to myself; it's all the same sort of thing, and it's the same steps and the same procedure. Now, with little kids yes, you can do that, and yes you must do that because they are secure in repetition. But it can be done too much too. This (patting the Teacher's Guide) to me is too much the same right through: the same steps, the same procedures, the same activities and you approach the next one exactly the same. You will, possibly, notice them dropping off in interest as we go along in the next two or three communities. They are very eager, this bunch, to get the correct things, to get the correct conclusions, and to get the right ideas put down. But, then, it depends on the group. I can foresee a lot of difficulties with groups of different abilities. Like the group I had last year; I know I would have lost half of them in the early stages, if I would really keep doing this kit the way it was meant to be, or the way it's laid out in here. You have to do something to continuously keep changing it; may be group all the communities and draw conclusions about them. There is something that would have to be done to change the whole thing.

RESEARCHER: It is not easy?

CORA: I can understand why they want to go through everything the same way with the different communities. I know why they want to go through all the steps for one community and then repeat them for a second, to get the comparisons. I understand the thinking and the reasoning behind it, but I think something has to change to make it a little more exciting, and get the same results but through a different method.

RESEARCHER: Is it true to say, Cora, that the way the unit is presented, it doesn't quite fit in with what you find to be most successful for your teaching?

CORA: Yes. I would say so. I don't believe in. . . like I find the way this unit is presented you have to do a lot of talking. Talking! Talking! Talking! They sit and gradually you see this one falling off a little. He lost somewhere. He lost interest. May be some child was trying to express a point and took too long to express it, and the other one got a little bored with it and, as a result, dropped off in interest. You see that happening and you know the different students, maybe their minds' wandering. So I would not present it in that particular way. I think there should be more role playing of some kind; something where they actually take a part in. The idea of being crowded together, that was at least a little bit . . .but the concept itself was very difficult. But, at least they did manage to do something, and then when I tried to equate the fact that the different rooms would represent the different provinces. We'll carry that out a little further, because they have no idea that we all belong together, but that each province is a separate area, and within that are cities. Maybe if I used the whole school and designated. . .this way it is a physical action that they are taking part in. It's not a lecture-type thing and a discussion-type thing all the time. I think they get lost. Their attention span is short and the point needs to be made quickly and quite vividly for them to get it. They get bored if it gets too long and too 'talky' if I can use that word.

RESEARCHER: I think you may have mentioned this before Cora, but do you think others would teach it as you teach it?

CORA: Probably the first time around everybody would teach it fairly uniformly. I think everybody would try to go through it and get the feel of it, and the reaction of a class to it. But I think after that it would start becoming your own package. You would adapt it to suit your needs and your methods.

RESEARCHER: What you've found?

CORA: Yes. Right! Definitely, I would. . .I would use more. . . for instance, in their books I would use more picture-type things, that they can relate to, and maybe have them write a sentence or two of their own about it. Do more of that kind of thing than all that talking, talking, talking. I would adapt it to what suits me what goes best for me.

RESEARCHER: What do you think makes the difference between. . . I think you mentioned earlier on, you felt Annette would teach it a different way. Annette too has said that she would teach it differently to you. In terms of what is important to you Cora, what is the important sort of thing that makes the difference between teachers? What is the important difference?

CORA: Um.

RESEARCHER: I'm not trying to be clever Cora, but it would seem to be worth exploring as. . .

CORA: With me possibly one of the things that I find about myself, and I don't know whether it's good or bad, if there is something they feel the kids should grasp. . .if they have some objectives. . . and I feel I'm not getting those objectives across, I will keep coming back to it. I sort of hang on and I try not to let go until I have achieved that. As far as Annette's concerned, I think she tries but if the kids don't get it. . . now I'm just referring to the social studies.

RESEARCHER: It's not judgmental?

CORA: No, it's not judgmental. I think she moves quicker through these things than I do. If she feels a concept can't be managed, she'll move on. She will just keep going until she has covered the material. So, I think I am more methodical and thorough that way than she is. Because I know she moves quickly through her programs a lot more quickly than I do. Maybe, in the end it all seems to level out anyway. I know, in talking to her, that this is so. When I mentioned to her that population density was bothering me because I couldn't seem to get the kids. . .she just shrugged and said, "Oh well! If it's too hard for them to do then I'm just going to leave it". I know that's more her attitude than mine; mine will bother me. It will bother me for a long time. I will leave it when it's getting to the point; "Oh no! Here she goes again on that population density bit." Then I leave it, but I will try and get back to it eventually and see if I can get that across. Maybe, when the people make up these units, they don't think about that kind of thing; that they really put a burden, so to speak, on you. By saying, well we want you to cover this and we want you to get these objectives. Then, they don't realize possibly that they sort of tie you down to it. They impose a burden on me that I feel I need to get it done because that was what was prescribed.

RESEARCHER: Speaking generally, but specifically in terms of this kit, how do you feel the people who put it together saw you as a teacher and teachers generally? Did they make any assumptions about teachers when they planned this unit?

CORA: I'm not sure about this one. I think they assume here. . . I really can't say that I know what assumptions they draw. If I say, "They assume that we'll change the unit to meet our needs" then I would have to say, "They are going to think boy this unit is going to change a lot." Because, to me, it is a little bit 'dragged' out. It's got too much in it that I think is a little difficult at this level, and so it becomes 'draggy'. So, therefore, their unit isn't going to achieve what they wanted to do if the teachers are all going to change it to suit themselves. So I would assume that they must think that we are all fairly successful at being lecture-type people. Successful at getting the information out of the kids. Getting the children to act a little bit more maturely than they should at this stage.

RESEARCHER: The assumption is that the teacher should be in front of the class?

CORA: Right. Like, some of the other kits will give you ideas on how to motivate the kids. They will give you ideas on how to get across some of these objectives. They don't give you that. They just assume that you will be able to cope with this.

I don't know. Unless you are really, really experienced I think you could really get bogged down and get yourself into a knot over this. They don't give you too many alternatives to follow if one method doesn't work.

RESEARCHER: What do you think would happen if the teacher was inexperienced?

CORA: Well, I think she would lose the students' interest. I think that it would become a unit that would be covered, but the kids would probably be bored with it. And, again I am speaking from my own training as a teacher years ago. I am putting myself in that category. Now perhaps the students at this stage in time are trained more in methods of changing units to adapt. I don't know. May be. . . I don't know exactly how they are trained any more as far as adapting units or finding ways of overcoming some of these things. But I know with me a new teacher, I would have probably found this unit heavy going the first time around.

RESEARCHER: Do you think Cora, in sending the unit to teachers and communicating it to them that it was presented effectively?

CORA: Not really. We were given this package. We were given this (touching the box). We could call on them to give us in-services on it but we were never called together. Say a group of grade two teachers, and maybe she would have had a film strip and said, "All right now, here is the way this unit can be taught" and give you examples. Breakdown the unit so that you could really see the different parts of it and see it in action. We were just given it. We had a meeting on it. Not on the unit itself but on the general Alberta content type - Canadian content. It was very vague, and so the specifics didn't come out. To me there wasn't enough presentation done of this unit. I guess it is possibly difficult to get to all the teachers, but they do have conventions and they do have meetings and things. I think that's one of the kinds of things they could say, "All right, here is a workshop on this unit and we want you all here", and then present it.

RESEARCHER: It's not sufficient to have somebody come out and talk about it?

CORA: No, it's not good enough. You need to see it in action and that is what we didn't see.

RESEARCHER: I know it may be difficult Cora, but would you describe yourself for me in a couple of sentences.

CORA: Myself?

RESEARCHER: Yes. In terms of what you think is important. I appreciate it is not easy.

CORA: As a person or a personality or as a teacher?

RESEARCHER: You described your room as being 'bright'. How would you describe yourself?

CORA: Well I like to develop a comfortable atmosphere in the room. I like the children to like me and I like them to know that I like them. I like to have a closeness with them so that they feel that, if something is wrong, they can really be close to me; more than just a teacher. Because, to me 'teacher' connotes just a person apart and separate. I like to be part of them. They become my family for the year. I like to be fair. I sometimes think I'm not. I'm a kind of a volatile person and I can really get cross very quickly.

RESEARCHER: Is that true?

CORA: It is! I really have to watch that kind of thing with them. I am very emotional. I like them to try and obey the rules and try and be the kind of students I want them to be. I work at that quite hard. I think that a self-discipline is important. But I like them to like themselves and I want them to like our room as a whole and to be close together. This is what I want. There will be little personality differences here and there. But even like with Dwayne, I have great difficulty watching him wrinkle his things up and that kind of thing. But I can understand his problems and I still feel I want him to be a part of everything. I want them to be happy, is one of my main objectives so that they are secure in the room. I like to be thorough. I like to cover everything that is supposed to be covered but I like to do a lot of things that are extra to give them a good happy time..

RESEARCHER: For them to enjoy school.

CORA: That they enjoy school. So that they say, "We had a great time at school this morning"; "We laughed all morning or we did this all morning." I will do that. There are times when I will walk in and the mood will just be right. I'll say to myself, "Well this is the morning I'll really do something different with them." Then we just forget about the timetable for an hour or two, or half a day or so. I think this provides a little extra spice for them so that they don't get into that routine where all the questions are always on the board, or all the assignments are always on the board.

RESEARCHER: A few surprises.

CORA: A few surprises. Right.

RESEARCHER: You mentioned, Cora, about a carry-over to other subjects. Would you tell me about this?

CORA: Okay. For instance, in language we are talking about shapes and sizes so this works in well with the unit because they can talk about city buildings being tall and rectangular or flat. They can talk about sizes: really large, small, or low. This type of thing. So we use the language program a lot. It's a lot more oral than possibly written but we do tie that in. In art, for instance, we're making a city skyline where they can see tall buildings, small buildings. I'll try and work more art in as time permits. We're really kind of rushing it right now. In math there's not too much correlation right now. Spelling some but it's mainly in the language part itself, rather than the reading and spelling part. Although we do take words like 'cement' and 'playground' and things like that. I don't get them to spell them but we discuss them and write them down and so on. So there is some correlation there.

RESEARCHER: The unit is set about an issue. How does it work for you? I think it's in the first part (Teacher's Guide).

CORA: 'How should neighbourhoods in Canada use space?' is the major issue and 'Should neighbourhoods have many or few residents?'

RESEARCHER: What does this mean to you?

CORA: I think there should be some sort of cohesive idea and possibly this one is. But I think there is more in the unit than that particular issue. I think may be a person loses sight of the other things if they centralize their thinking on the one issue. I would think there should be a number of them that could be covered within the unit.

RESEARCHER: Has the unit asked you to change?

CORA: It has asked me to be more repetitive. It has asked to change some of my methods of teaching.

RESEARCHER: Are there other aspects of the unit that you would like to talk about? Matters that are of interest or concern to you?

CORA: I think, basically, with this unit it should have been demonstrated more. Possibly when you go through a unit like this there is a lot that you are concerned with and there are many things that you might miss in going through the philosophy; some of it may escape you. Let me give you an example. We have a new reading series. I'll just break away from the unit. We have a reading series and it was sort of given to us. Here is your new set of readers and you go ahead and you teach. If you really didn't know the series inside out you were lost, and you taught it absolutely wrong.

It was a totally different approach to reading - to teaching reading - than the one we have been used to over the years. Now, there was no in-service on it; there was no talk on it; there was nothing done. We were just required to buy these readers and so on. So, we had our professional development day and I took the reading in-service. I was totally horrified at all the things that I was doing that were not what they considered right for the series. And, in the way the series was planned, I can see that the things I was doing weren't working. This was why I was feeling a little frustrated with the reading. I thought that something wasn't quite right. It didn't jell. It seemed a little off somehow. So, when I came back, I changed the things I was doing to fit the reading series. Now, when you take a completely total approach - a totally different approach to something - I think the teacher should be made aware of the pitfalls. Perhaps there are pitfalls in this unit that I won't spot for two or three times around. This is what they did do with the reading series. They showed us the pitfalls; they showed us the strong points; they showed us the weak points. There was a lecturer but he had video-tapes and the materials and he asked us questions. He brought up things that were found to be wrong by other teachers. It was a total integration-type thing of other teachers as well as their own staff. With this unit, the unfair part is because it was at the beginning of the year and there was a lot of shifting with students being moved and so on. I couldn't devote as much time to really getting to know this unit as I would like to. Possibly, if you were to come next year and see me doing this, it would be a different approach. Then, maybe, you wanted it just fresh.

RESEARCHER: Yes.

CORA: If you remember our conversations at the beginning, I really was enthusiastic about the way it was laid out. I was enthusiastic about it; about some of the learnings that were in it, and so on. I did refer to it in quite positive terms. Not seeing all the little things that went wrong with it or that were wrong with it. Now, I am not quite as enthusiastic about it as I was. I think that there is a lot of good in it but I had to really get to know it first, then I could really evaluate it properly.

RESEARCHER: Would you agree that when you teach it for the first time, to an extent you are familiarizing yourself with the kit? It would seem that you are, in a sense, evaluating it and you don't know much about it until you have worked with it in the classroom with your children.

CORA: Right. So the children are a sort of a testing ground. I am testing the unit out on them and, at the same time, trying to evaluate it, and trying to make adaptations, and so on. I was just thinking to myself today. When I first saw it and I thought, oh good, here is some film strips, and some books, and materials, and maps and things. That concerned me; that deceived me from the total content of the unit itself. From the different values they wanted to get. The different objectives and how they wanted us to cover it. I really, truly just lanced at it and liked what I saw. I still like the unit. I think it is a good unit but I think it doesn't possibly go far enough in certain areas and goes too far in others. Again, I'm thinking of the beginning of the unit, when I showed the children other countries. Now there, they were really eager to get at it; it was different; it was unique; it was something special.

RESEARCHER: These were your pictures?

CORA: My own pictures. Whereas this unit does not quite have that. Most of them have been to small towns and, because it is something they are sort of exposed to, it is not something bright and fresh enough to really capture their imagination.

RESEARCHER: No suprises.

CORA: No surprise. No surprise. We are going over things that they kind of know but they have a great deal of trouble talking about. I think they know, basically, that if you have a lot of space, and so on, it's nice. I think they know, basically, they wouldn't like to live in crowded areas. But for them to express it, and for them to know why they wouldn't like to live like that, is a little difficult. So, some of my ideas about it have changed. Like I say, when I first looked at it I thought it was great because it had all the stuff in it that they wanted you to teach. From that point of view, to me, it is still good.

RESEARCHER: You are not taking issue with the principle or idea of being self-contained? Is that right?

CORA: I'm not. . . I still think that the unit given out to other teachers all over the province is still a good idea. Giving them the basic core of it. But I think the unit could be a little bit livelier.

RESEARCHER: If you were teaching it next year Cora, then you would teach it differently?

CORA: I would. Definitely, I would. I wouldn't go through all the same steps and the same procedures. Or, if I did, I would do it. . . . First, I would possibly expose the children to the different communities quickly. Really quickly. I don't know how I would go about it. Have them there, for them to compare right away. Not go through all this with Toronto; then go through all of it for Shaunavon; and all of it for Medicine Hat and that kind of thing. I think, trying to draw an idea between the size of Toronto, the size of Medicine Hat, and the size of Edmonton, is too hard for them. They cannot see the difference. It's like a little child is looking at a whole bunch of tall people. He has to decide that he is taller, she's taller, he's wider and taller, that one is shorter. When he looks at the total population they are all big people. He is small. Down here. I think that is the same idea with the children. They look at cities, and cities are all big. To them what is two million or half a million, it really makes no difference to them. They are totally concerned just with their immediate community. That's why I think I get bogged down in it. Maybe that's my viewpoint. I'm trying to put myself in their place, and that's what they are seeing. Whereas, I think, if you were to take a totally different environment, like a community in the desert; now, that is really different. There are a lot of things that are different in it. The differences have to be very big for them to see them. If you are watering them down, it is very vague what the differences are. I think they have trouble.

RESEARCHER: Is it correct to say, Cora, that you will modify the unit to fit into what you feel is more appropriate and more successful as far as you are concerned?

CORA: Right. For instance, that one of the boat people of Hong Kong. You could talk about space there and you could teach them, I think more effectively, how nice it is to have your space. Whereas, the boat people have to have their animals and everything right on this one little boat area. I think you are taking two totally different things but you will get to the issue of whether neighbourhoods should have few or many residents. I think that would work a little better, but then they want Canadian content. That then is another point. They are trying to achieve certain things and sticking to the Canadian content area. May be this is what is wrong. May be this is what's the bugbear. The fact that it is difficult to find what is different. Maybe they could have taken a community a way up north - an Inuit community.

APPENDIX C

TRANSCRIPT OF TEACHER INTERVIEW, ANNETTE

Date: November 1

Time: 2.30 p.m.

Place: Staff room

Topic: Annette's perception of Kanata Kit 2

RESEARCHER:	Now that you have taught a number of lessons it would be interesting to have your comments on the kit, Annette.
ANNETTE:	I think in about two weeks I am going to be finished because now I'm putting this all together. I'm getting all my sheets worked off and from all the lessons that we have taken orally and my presentation and so on. Like today, I took social studies in the afternoon simply because Gloria was coming in. The way I did this, we took this city - you know the story about Carley (Carley's Adventure). It is quite a good story, however the second one is, I think, a very poor story that goes with the film strip and I didn't think much of the film strip either. (Toronto: An Urban Neighbourhood) It could be anywhere.
RESEARCHER:	What was the second one?
ANNETTE:	'Medicine Hat: A Small City'.
RESEARCHER:	You didn't like that?
ANNETTE:	No. It could be in any setting, this story. I didn't think this story particularly pertained to a small city setting and I didn't think the slides they had - you know in the slide presentation - could have been party of any, or even a big city setting or even like the suburbs or something. I thought that one wasn't as well done as the first one. The first story really goes with a big city. The second one didn't have anything to offer the children. The children didn't notice anything different. You know, like a school bus. Well, a school bus can be in an acreage, in a big city. You can have pictures of school buses and it showed three or four slides of children playing soccer. Well, that can be just anywhere. Where you see three children together kicking a soccer ball. Is there anything else you want me to tell you?
RESEARCHER:	Do you have any opinions about what you have taught?
ANNETTE:	Yes, I like the approach that they are taking.
RESEARCHER:	You mentioned or made comments after a lesson which I haven't been able to remember or to tape. One instance occurred on Monday.
ANNETTE:	The overcrowding?
RESEARCHER:	Yes, I think you made some comments then.
ANNETTE:	Oh dear! I should have brought my book. The topic was population density. The terminology is too difficult. I mentioned that to her (Social Studies Consultant who visited the school in the morning) and I used that as an example

this morning. I said now why do you go ahead and put the heading, and in the overview also, that you are to stress population density. I said, it's meaningless to children; crowding means something. I told her, not once did the children use 'density' and I had to fish it out of them to get the word 'population'. She said it's meant to be taught at the end of the year. I said I have more than half my class that at the end of the year won't even know what density means.

RESEARCHER: The unit is not programmed for the end of the year?

ANNETTE: No. The only thing I can see where it could be taken later is when the children have established the difference between a city, a province, and a country. That is the only thing which they were totally unprepared for when I started the unit. That is the only part, otherwise it could be taken at any time of the year.

RESEARCHER: These three different situations would provide the background?

ANNETTE: Yes, they didn't have the background and knowledge to know what a country is. Even now, when I say, "What is our neighbour to the west?" some of them are just as likely to say Vancouver, as Kamloops, as British Columbia. So you see, they still, even at the end of the year, some of them would still have that. I dare say at Grade 3, when these children come into Grade 3, there will still be some of them who will not differentiate between a province and a country.

RESEARCHER: You also mentioned hypotheses Annette.

ANNETTE: I don't even use the term. Over there in the questions it says, ask the children to hypothesize this and hypothesize that. I don't even mention the term. There's no way.

RESEARCHER: That is one of the objectives of the unit?

ANNETTE: That's right. Well it seems to be. Let them hypothesize on this.

RESEARCHER: Did you mention this to the consultant?

ANNETTE: I didn't have time to talk to her because it was just while I was teaching. She just called me to the door and she said, "I understand your using the unit and how do you like it?" I said, "I like it fine but I don't like the terminology that's used." I said, "Some of the things in there are very good because they do help the teacher," and I said, "Is this going to be a prescribed unit?" She said "Yes! It will. It will be in time." I told her, "The biggest variable in that whole unit is still the teacher; that is the greatest variable." Because I'll bet you fifty teachers will teach that unit in fifty different ways.

RESEARCHER: Why do you think that is so, Annette?

ANNETTE: I think simply because the more I look over the kit, and I have gone through it quite thoroughly now. At first, when I started teaching the unit I was really totally unprepared for it. I just glanced at it and I looked to see what the contents were and I looked to see a few other things. I glanced through it in June and then I left it. Now, as I get into it I have an idea of what I want these children to learn. I know my class and I know what I expect out of some of them. Now, I have different levels of ability in my class and I am getting my mind made up of what I expect these children to get. So I am going to be teaching with the materials in a different way; I am going to be presenting it differently. I am sure I present it differently to the way C. does. Yet, I'm not saying I'm right or that she's wrong. But, for my class, and for me, that's the way I want to do it.

RESEARCHER: To some extent Annette, when you receive a teaching unit such as this and you teach it for the first time, then it would seem from what you have said, that it is something of an exploratory experience.

ANNETTE: It is! It is a way of determining how best I can teach it. That is, what should you say, well it's a tool for me. How I use it is the way I want to teach that unit but I'm still covering what they have outlined. I am not violating anything. I'm not changing anything. Like I'm not taking a different neighbourhood. I'm using the prescribed neighbourhoods.

RESEARCHER: Could it be said that you will teach it the way you feel will best. . .

ANNETTE: For my class. For my class. Now, the class I had last year, I think I would have done it differently still because I had some children that were of higher ability. I would have felt that they needed to get a higher level of learning from that unit. More story writing, more details in some of the towns and so on. Like this class I'm going to go out on a limb and I'll give them a little bit of history of how Medicine Hat was called Medicine Hat, you know, and so on. Or, probably a city like Toronto. I'm going to use another lesson where I'll compare Edmonton. It may just be even during a reading lesson where I'll be comparing Edmonton to Toronto or something, you know, and so on. There are things that I will fill in myself.

RESEARCHER: In teaching the unit for the first time, Annette, you tend to follow their guidelines?

ANNETTE: Yes. Oh yes.

RESEARCHER: But making. . .

ANNETTE: But making judgments as I go along. That's right! There are already a few things that I feel I have talked to the class about orally; that I am not going to make a lesson of it. You know, like some of those work sheets. You were in the room when the children were crowding around me. I don't see any need for going and filling in the one (Student Master No. 4) with the dots. You know the work sheet. They can see that; they see that in arithmetic; that six is more than three. I feel that with the class I have, I don't need to go through that; there is no point. It's been made already, so why repeat it? I have made a chart where they are going to paste those little figures on from one of them (Student Master No. 3). We haven't had time because we have so many interruptions. I'm sure that you can see that in our school.

RESEARCHER: These interruptions are part of the organizational pattern of the school. The Principal mentioned that the school has three main days which it celebrates. Halloween, Christmas/end of the year, is another, and. . .

ANNETTE: Oh there is Valentine's Day.

RESEARCHER: Whilst I've been here there has been Edmonton's anniversary.

ANNETTE: Oh, yes.

RESEARCHER: Thanksgiving.

ANNETTE: Oh, yes. And then we have professional development days which we had last Friday. So we have a lot of interruptions. Then, there is always assembly. Like, some day next week somebody is going to come into my room for an hour or an hour and a half and talk and talk about the braille children. Well, that takes some time. Then you get somebody from the local library who comes to ask children. You get all these things - which is part of learning anyway. They're all important but they are all taking my time. They really are. Or, you take even, like the birthday party last week (Edmonton's anniversary), well one day we are having a rehearsal. The next day we are going into the gym (where the concert is to take place) and this all takes an hour or an hour and a half: until you get them seated; until they can stand up and leave quietly; until they can learn what entrance they come in; how they sit down; where they stand; how they go.

RESEARCHER: All learning experiences?

ANNETTE: All learning experiences but it all cuts into your teaching time.

RESEARCHER: Are there some things, even on your first go through the unit, that you will look at and say that I'm not going to do that?

ANNETTE: Yes, I have already. . .I have already taken some things that I feel I have covered talking orally because I do think there is some repetition going on in some of the units. For my class I don't need that. May be some classes I would.

RESEARCHER: Can you list them off? Some of them you have mentioned.

ANNETTE: See, now I am using this. And we are making a class list - a chart. That's 'Student Master No. 3' when it's crowded. They are each putting the name of a child in our room. On one chart I have made it looks like this, and this is the blackboard. We are going to paste the little figures all close together on here. The next chart we make, I'm going to put them in the seating order in which they are sitting in. So, we are going to be using that - this one (Student Master No 3). I don't see any point in putting that (Student Master No. 4), to run it off, and to check it off, which one is density and which one is not density. There's another one. You see, when I show the film strip of Toronto, of Medicine Hat, and an acreage out of Edmonton, you work this sheet from that one. There are questions that they answer, and so on.

RESEARCHER: You are going to use that one?

ANNETTE: Yes, I am going to use that one (Student Master No. 5). This is another one in here. This one is all right, (Student Master No. 6) 'Should Neighbourhoods Have Many or Few Residents', and 'why I chose it'. Now, I can see right now . . .like I showed them an acreage. The only reason they would like to live on an acreage is because they can have a horse, or they can have a dog. Outside of that, the type of house, or the convenience for their father, closeness to job, doesn't mean anything. I don't see any point there at all.

RESEARCHER: It's of no interest to the children?

ANNETTE: No.

RESEARCHER: Is that one of the things?

ANNETTE: That's one of the things. Yes. Living on an acreage. That's the only answer I've ever had from them. Oh, because then I would have a dog, or I could have a horse. But such things as, in case of an emergency and your mother hasn't got a car, what would happen? That doesn't mean anything to them.

RESEARCHER: It's not realistic? Is that the right word?

ANNETTE: It doesn't have any relationship to their lives. That's right. I find that already, although that may be a generalization. Now, something like this, I can just put it on the board. You don't need a master sheet for that (Student Master No. 7). Those three sentences. In fact my children have hdd this at the beginning when I said, their country is Canada, their province is Alberta, and they live in the city of Edmonton.

RESEARCHER: It would be repeating what you have done?

ANNETTE: Repetition. These are some of the things that I have already gone through. Some of these questions are very good. They're good, you know. Recreation, fun, and so on. Like, 'what recreation would you have out on an acreage?' To children, it only means I can run around on the grass, or I can run around with my dog, or. . . it just means 'run'. So, however, that is important too. If you ask their parents? Now here is another one. This is for the other three. I haven't gotten this far but I have gone through this quite well.

RESEARCHER: Do you feel that if you are not going to get a response from the children then they are not interested in it?

ANNETTE: No, they are not.

RESEARCHER: Then you won't be bothered with it?

ANNETTE: See, like 'are there lots of play areas in the city?' Well, they will just say, 'no'. In Medicine Hat, well, 'may be'. On an acreage, well they know that anyway. There is no way to develop that. You don't go along and besides you are not supposed to try and change their minds. If you say, yes, the acreage is the best place for growing children to live, there isn't anything that the children can do about it. Their parents live here and that's all there is to it. See, 'are there lots of children to play with?' Well, in the city the story is how this little boy was bored. He was in this city, this great big city, and he had no one to play with because he didn't know anybody in the highrise, or wherever he lived. So, in the city, by rights, you would say yes, there are plenty of children, but sometimes you are the loneliest in a big city; in a small city or in a rural area.

RESEARCHER: In a sense, you are challenging some of the assumptions of this unit.

ANNETTE: Oh yes! I would! What they think you are going to get. Why I chose it. See, these children have no choice where they are living in Edmonton anyway. But, it's all right, it makes an interesting study.

RESEARCHER: Returning to the point we mentioned earlier. In teaching the unit for the first time, Annette, you are not going to use things that you feel will not be of value to the children, or helpful to your teaching?

ANNETTE: Right. That's right. See like all these 'Why' questions. 'Why does each family live in their own house on an acreage?' Well, that doesn't make any sense to me. You have got to live in something. You are not going to have an apartment on an acreage, and you are not going to have anything else, so why does each family live in their own house. Well? It's kind of ambiguous, isn't it? All right! Why are there no street lights? Well they would understand that. Then, they would say, I know an acreage where they have street lights. I know, I have visited some friends, and they do have a street light right in front of their house. They are not too bad, you can overlook that. This chart I am going to use (Student Master No. 5) but I am going to use it differently than what they say. I'm making the charts; one is crowded and one is not crowded, and that isn't what they set out for this one anyway, but that is the way I want to do it.

RESEARCHER: In a sense, you are taking the idea but you are using your own charts and incorporating your own ideas?

ANNETTE: Because I think this is more meaningful and this will answer a lot of questions; instead of population density. I am not going to talk about population density. I am not going to talk about population density in Medicine Hat, as they say, and in Toronto, as they say. These children have no concept of how many people can live in a highrise - none at all. I showed them the slides and I'd say, "How many families do you think can live there?" "Oh, maybe twelve." Well, you know, there would be hundreds of people living in one of those. Say thirty storeys high and a wide building. And I said, well look at the balconies. You know, the balconies from one side alone, we counted forty. Well, the balconies are on the other side also, because in between they have the back of the partments. You know, if you have eighty apartments, how many people can live in that. They have no idea and there is no use telling them. Like some of them will say, "My mum had a birthday, and she's real old. She's thirty one years old." Well that's not old, but to them it is. But that is just one point, however maybe with another class I would use that concept and develop it further.

RESEARCHER: Could I take a different perspective for a moment, Annette? Would you tell me something about your room? It seems most attractive to me and it would be helpful to know something of the way you organize it and what is important about it for you.

ANNETTE: I always try to have something that has to do with their subject matter. I always think I should have something to do with social studies and I'm just starting to fix up my board. I don't know if you noticed'This is my country' and I start putting up different pictures and so on. In time, it may be their work on it. Well, now there was Fall, and Halloween, so I've just taken that down. Today, I've been taking down, and I've just put up a few charts. I think you should always have something on health, and something on science. I always like to display their art in some way. I hope you don't think it is cluttered.

RESEARCHER: No. It looks most attractive.

ANNETTE: Sometimes it gets cluttered.

RESEARCHER: No. But looking around, I thought that you had a reason for what you do. You have described the importance of subject areas but, if I could take it a step further, does all of this have a purpose for you?

ANNETTE: It has a purpose. Yes. I do plan it. Some of the pictures and charts I've used time and time again. Sometimes, I may not have used them last year, but I'll use them this year. There is a plan; I find a purpose to it and then I keep changing them around.

RESEARCHER: You organize your room and your displays, Annette, to achieve what you want to achieve?

ANNETTE: Yes. That may sound a little dictatorial but I feel, at this level, I can't ask the children, "What would you like on the board?" Because they would have 'Batman' and 'Superman' and so on, on it. Later on, there are times, like around Christmas, and so on, it is all their work. With a plan in mind, we'll put up a big Christmas tree and they'll decide what they want to put around it. Most of it is their work. Right now, there isn't that much of theirs outside of their art. Then, another thing, I am just about ready to put up some of their stories. You know, that they write; their stories and language and then we display them. We have a corner where they can read their little poems, and little stories, or if they make booklets, this is their work.

RESEARCHER: The children like to see their work put up?

ANNETTE: Oh yes! Sometimes we will even take it and put it up in the library. During Education Week, we'll even put it out in the hallways and other children can read their work. It's mostly their stories that they print themselves, and so on. Then, they bring news that they want to bring some other things that are of interest.

RESEARCHER: Current events are part of your displays?

ANNETTE: Yes. Sometimes it will be something that has happened right here, like the bus children or Trevor's mother, but right now there hasn't been anything. Right now we have been talking about UNICEF. There was the baby that was starving, and so on. We talked about UNICEF boxes and they took them all out on Halloween and out of twenty three I think about eighteen took boxes out and they were almost all full of pennies. So they brought them out. I was showing them where some of the poorer people lived. I said don't think that they send them money. They said, because it is so heavy. I said, we send them medicine or we send them powdered milk or something like that, that we can buy. We had a talk about that first thing this morning. They get an idea from the map but distance doesn't mean very much yet. They just know its far away or close by or it takes you a long time to get there. They see these pictures of starving children but they can't imagine what it's like. All they know is that 'oh, when I get hungry before noon' but its a different kind of hunger.

But, going back to displays and so on; sometimes there will be a lot of their work up. At different times of the year. I haven't gotten around to it. It has been such a busy Fall here. Even 'This is my country', I put up the map and so on. It's just pictures of fields and pictures of mountains and rivers and lakes and so on; what is in our country so far. Then, today, when we were taking it up, I put on another map; where Edmonton was, where Toronto was, and where Medicine Hat was.

RESEARCHER: Are you reasonably happy with those pictures?

ANNETTE: Yes, the pictures are all right. Maybe not the best but you can't always find a picture that's suitable. You mean the pictures from the kit?

RESEARCHER: Yes.

ANNETTE: Yes. They are not too bad. Some of them are - like in the film strip we noticed one of the pictures that was used. They are as good as can be expected.

RESEARCHER: I hope you don't mind me asking questions at random, Annette, but there was one other thing you mentioned in the questions I set out - and thanks very much again for taking the time to write answers - you mentioned having a lesson structure or sequence you worked through that you found worked best for you with your children. I can't quite remember how you put it but that is what you find successful.

ANNETTE: That works for me.

RESEARCHER: Yes, that is in terms of the children's learning.

ANNETTE: I believe that how can you have an intelligent discussion with the children if they don't have enough knowledge of something. Like, how can I talk to children about oceans when some of them haven't seen it, or some of them don't know what an ocean is; if there is life in it or what it is used for. You have to do a certain amount of teaching so that they will be knowledgeable.

RESEARCHER: I suppose Annette, one of the points I am making is how closely this kit corresponds to what you find effective with your teaching?

ANNETTE: Well, I wouldn't say its that close because this kit is all discussions. It shows a film strip and then it says 'why', 'why', and 'why'. Well, unless you tell children . . . like, when I started first of all about a small city, I said, remember it is a city. They do have some of the things the city has. Like your police, and your fire department, and schools, and paved streets, and street lights, and so on, but it is smaller because. . . . Then I would tell them, and then I would show it to them. The story, as I've said, wasn't very relevant to the film strip or to any kind of a small town. I felt that of those, that one was kind of weak. So I talk about it in my own way, what I know and I pass the information on to them. Then, when I show the film strip, and you ask them a question, I feel it is a little more meaningful than just showing a film strip and then saying 'why'. Then I tell them what to look for.

RESEARCHER: I don't want to misinterpret you Annette, but are you saying, in a sense, there is not a lot of substance to it for these children?

ANNETTE: That's right!

RESEARCHER: In terms of knowledge?

ANNETTE: Of knowledge.

RESEARCHER: Am I exaggerating?

ANNETTE: Well, just substance - substance for a lesson. There isn't enough in there. That's where the teacher comes in.

RESEARCHER: Knowledge, could I say, in terms of informational content?

ANNETTE: Information. Because they want more discussion than what I think children at that level can do. They can't discuss something they don't know.

RESEARCHER: Is the emphasis on activities but without providing much in the way of information on which to base these activities?

ANNETTE: Yes! I would say that. Although at no time. . .

RESEARCHER: I don't want to misinterpret you, Annette. I don't know because I haven't taught the unit. I'm asking you because I don't want to misinterpret but from what you said . . .

ANNETTE: I feel that way. If I didn't know something about Toronto to pass on to them. No, I shouldn't say that. The information that I felt I passed on to them made the film strip more meaningful than if I showed the film strip and asked them questions - why, why, why.

APPENDIX D

TEACHER PERCEPTION OF TEACHING (TPOT) SCHEDULE

TEACHER PERCEPTIONS OF TEACHING (TPOT)

(Grade 2 - Kanata Kit)

Topic: ______________________________

Date: ____________________ Time: ______________

Expectations of the lesson	Realizations of the lesson

Other comments: ______________________________

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Duration of lesson: minutes

APPENDIX E

PART 1, KANATA KIT 2, CANADIAN NEIGHBOURHOODS: THE SAME OR DIFFERENT?

Overview Part I introduces the major issue:
How should neighbourhoods in Canada use space?

The students are introduced to the concept of neighbourhood and are given a visual introduction to a variety of neighbourhoods across Canada. Each student then develops an initial hypothesis as to the preferred characteristics of a neighbourhood: "I would like to live in a neighbourhood which has . . ."

It is essential to the success of the unit that each student understands what a hypothesis is. In *Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary* a hypothesis is defined as "a tentative assumption made in order to draw out and test its logical or empirical consequences."

The students' hypothesis will be re-evaluated three times during the unit. Each student will be given the chance to affirm his or her initial hypothesis or to revise it.

Activity 1
Identifying Canadian Neighbourhoods

Intention In order for students to focus on the major issue of the unit, they must first develop an understanding of the concept of neighbourhood. This entails an examination of various components which make up a neighbourhood. Activity 1 uses a filmstrip to enable students to look at a variety of neighbourhoods throughout Canada. Each student is then asked to formulate an initial hypothesis listing the components his or her ideal neighbourhood would include.

The initial hypotheses are of great importance to the entire course of study. As the students gain more information they will have opportunities to re-evaluate and alter their initial hypotheses.

Objectives

Value The students will become aware of a variety of Canadian neighbourhoods.

Knowledge Concepts: neighbourhood, hypothesis
Generalization: There are a variety of neighbourhoods in Canada.

Skill The students will begin to develop an understanding of what is involved in making a hypothesis.

Materials

1. Filmstrip and audiotape, *This Land is Your Land,* in kit
2. Large sheets of paper
3. Student Master No. 1
4. Student Master No. 2

Procedure

1. Before showing the filmstrip, tell the students they are going to see some pictures of Canadian neighbourhoods. Point out that there are many neighbourhoods in Canada, and they are going to be studying several of them in this unit. Help the class to make a list of the kinds of things they might expect to see. ("What We Expect to See.")
2. Show the filmstrip.
3. Ask the children what they saw and have them record their ideas on a specific colour of paper. ("What We Saw.") Accompany notebook work with a master chart on the wall. (See Student Master No. 1.)
4. Show the filmstrip a second time, and ask the children to look for different things.
5. Record their new observations, using a different colour of paper.
6. Have the students circle things on Student Master No. 1 that

they would like to have in their neighbourhood. Have each student write out a hypothesis, beginning with, "I would like to live in a neighbourhood which has. . ." (For example, lots of trees, a horse, and lots of room to play.)

7. The students may wish to learn the song, "This Land Is Your Land." See music sheet, Student Master No. 2.

Student Master No. 1

What We Expect To See	What We Saw
People	
Buildings	
Trees	
Mountains	
Rivers/Lakes	
Pets	
Businesses	
Traffic	
Houses	
Farms	
Apartments	
Open Spaces	
Crowded Spaces	
Fun Things (Recreation)	
Factories	
Pets	
Others	

Hypothesis: I would like to live in a neighbourhood which has ______

because ______

Name ______

Teacher's Copy - See duplication copy in Student Master Envelope

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APPENDIX F

TRANSCRIPT OF SOCIAL STUDIES LESSON, CORA

Date: October 15

Time: 1.20 p.m.

Place: Cora's classroom

CORA: What is a neighbourhood? Andrea?

ANDREA: A place where people can live.

CORA: All right. A place where people can live. Okay, Kelly?

KELLY: A place where there are parks and schools.

CORA: A place where we have parks and schools. Pam!

PAM: A place where there are doctors and shops and gas stations.

CORA: Okay. Where we have doctors and storekeepers and gas
stations. Stephen!

STEPHEN: Where you could play sports.

CORA: Where you could play sports. Scott?

SCOTT: Where there are old people's homes.

CORA: Where we have places for old people to live. Okay, Billy!

BILLY: Where we have friends to play with.

CORA: Where we have friends to play with. That's an interesting
sentence or an interesting suggestion. What do you think
Shane?

SHANE: Where we have shopping centres.

CORA: Okay. So (turning to the blackboard) A neighbourhood
is -- a place -- where people --- live.
Where does the word neighbourhood come from?
Neighbour --- hood. Penny!

PENNY: From neighbours.

CORA: It comes from the word neighbours. What are neighbours?
Penny?

PENNY: People who live in the next house.

LESLEY: Or near you.

CORA: Or near you. All right. A neighbourhood is a place where
people live. It is made up of people that live beside you,
in front of you, somebody said near you.

TODD: The whole world.

CORA: Would the whole world be a neighbourhood?

PUPILS: No.

PAM: The whole world could be a neighbourhood

CORA: Just remember that. Later on when we are talking about other things let us remember that. Will you remember that Pam? That the whole world could be a neighbourhood.

PAM: We heard that in church.

CORA: You heard it in church that the whole world was a neighbourhood. (Turning to the blackboard) A neighbourhood is a place where people live. Now we have that part. It has --- parks, --- playground, schools, --- shopping centres, --- gas stations, --- restaurants.
Now Billy said that it also has friends.
It --- has --- friends --- for us --- to play with.

Okay. I want to show you some pictures. Now I want you to tell me if you think these pictures are neighbourhoods or not. Okay, here is a picture. Don't call out. Just look at it. Just look please. (Picture 10. A Nigerian Village. One World/The Community. Fitzhenry and Whiteside Limited, 1971).
Okay. How many of you think that this is a place where people live?

PUPILS: Raise hands to indicate their agreement

CORA: How many of you think that this could be a neighbourhood?

PUPILS: Raise hands to indicate agreement.

CORA: Why do you think this could be a neighbourhood Billy?

BILLY: Because there are lots of people beside houses.

CORA: Okay. Bill thinks that when people live together in an area it is a neighbourhood. Very interesting, Billy. I'll put this one up here.

LESLEY: I know another reason.

CORA: What's the other reason?

LESLEY: Because people live there.

CORA: That's what Billy said. There were people living in this area. He thinks that is a neighbourhood. Now let us have a look at this without talking first. Just look. (Displaying Picture 4. Shanghai sampans)
What about this picture. It is a very interesting picture; a different picture; one that you don't see all the time.
All right. Now what is this place full of? Can you tell me? David!

DAVID: It's full of boats.

CORA: Boats! It's full of boats. What is special about these boats? Kelly!

KELLY: They're house-boats

CORA: They're house-boats. Would you call this a neighbourhood? How many of you would call it a neighbourhood?

PUPILS: (Most pupils raise their hands in agreement)

CORA: David, why would you call this a neighbourhood?

DAVID: Because it has got houses . . . and lots of people.

CORA: Lots of people. Lesley!

LESLEY: Because people are living on the boats.

CORA: Because people are living on these house-boats. It is full of places where people are living. Billy!

BILLY: There are a lot of people living close together. I went to China.

CORA: You lived in China? You went to visit there. All right. Everybody says that is a neighbourhood too. (Display of Picture 13. A prairie community)

Just look! Don't talk first. Have a good look. Do people live here?

PUPILS: Yes.

CORA: Cynthia, do you think this is a neighbourhood?

CYNTHIA: Yes.

CORA: Why do you think this is a neighbourhood? Gary!

GARY: There are houses.

CORA: Kelly!

KELLY: Because a lot of people live there.

CORA: Because there are a lot of people living in the same area. Okay, let us look at these pictures (The following pictures are set out on the blackboard ledge: 1. A New Zealand sheep station; 3. A Bedouin community; 14. A kibbutz in Israel; 15. The market place in Agades; 7. Eskimo community receiving winter supplies; 8. An Indian village in the Queen Charlotte Islands, 1878; 12. A Swiss mountain village.

Just look. We can discuss later on.

(Cora asks Lesley if she is not feeling well. Lesley goes to the office to lie down)

CORA: Okay. Hands up those that think this is a neighbourhood. (pointing to picture 1). How many think that this is a neighbourhood (indicating picture 3). How many think this is a neighbourhood (picture 14). Richard!

RICHARD: There is lots of houses and lots of people.

CORA: Are there as many houses in this part (a New Zealand sheep station) as there would be house-boats in here (Shanghai sampans)?

PUPILS: No.

CORA: Billy!

BILLY: There are many people living on the boats.

CORA: People living together on the boats. Right. We have said all those pictures are neighbourhoods.

KEVIN: He must be a good artist to make that sky.

CORA: Have a look at this. Just look carefully (picture 15, the market place in Agades). Pam, is it a neighbourhood?

PAM: Yes.

CORA: Yes. Scott, is this a neighbourhood (picture 7. Eskimo community receiving winter supples)?

SCOTT: Yes.

CORA: Mathew! (Picture 1, A Swiss mountain village)

MATHEW: Yes.

CORA: Why is it a neighbourhood, Kevin?

KEVIN: Because there are lots of buildings grouped together and a lot of people living in them.

CORA: Because a lot of people are living together. All right. So most of you think that one of the most important things to a neighbourhood is the fact that people live together in one place.

PUPILS: Yes.

KELLY: Could we see the rest of the pictures?

CORA: You want to see the rest of the pictures?

PUPILS: Yes!

CORA: I will show you the rest of the pictures. I don't think I need to but as you are interested I'll show them to you. (Displays additional pictures which include, among others: 19. Downtown Vancouver and harbour; 11. A Newfoundland fishing community; 10. A Nigerian village; 8. An Indian village in the Queen Charlotte Islands, 1878).

PUPILS: I like that! That's a nice picture.

CORA: Let's try and keep the comments down. Sit down Gary! The remainder of the pictures are displayed and the children are given the opportunity to express an opinion as to whether or not each illustrates a neighbourhood.

Okay. Now, you all feel that most of these pictures are neighbourhoods. There is only one picture, or perhaps two pictures, that you felt were not pictures of neighbourhoods.

BILLY: I thought they were all neighbourhoods.

CORA: You thought this one (Picture 1. A New Zealand sheep station) was not a neighbourhood. Why did you think this was not a neighbourhood? Mathew!

MATHEW: There's not a lot of people there.

CORA: There is not that many people. There are only about three buildings and perhaps six people there. Some of you thought this wasn't a neighbourhood (Picture 3. A Bedouin community). Okay, all the rest you think are neighbourhoods. That's very good. They all are neighbourhoods but they are not all the same. They are not all the same but they are definitely all neighbourhoods. This is a neighbourhood in a desert (Picture 3). This is a neighbourhood on water - house-boats (Picture 4). This is a neighbourhood that existed many, many years ago (Picture 8). This is a neighbourhood that we see quite often. Andrea, when would you see this kind of a neighbourhood? (Picture 13.)

ANDREA: When you were driving out in the country.

CORA: Would you see this neighbourhood driving out in the country? (Picture 11.)

PUPILS: No.

CORA: Do you think this neighbourhood still is today? (Picture 8)

PUPILS: Yes. No.

CORA: How many think that you could see a neighbourhood like this? Not where maybe we drive. Where would you have to go to see a neighbourhood like this? (Picture 10.)

TODD: Around the world.

CORA: Some place else?

KELLY: The other side of the world, okay. Some place else?

MAREY: Jamaica?

CORA: All right. Now, these neighbourhoods are not all where we can drive to. What about this neighbourhood? Where do you think you could see a neighbourhood like this? Shall I tell you where this neighbourhood is? (Picture 19. Downtown Vancouver and harbour.)

PUPIL: It is across town.

CORA: Do you think it is across our town?

PUPILS: Yes.

CORA: Do we have this much water and mountain near our city?

PUPILS: No.

HEATHER: That is the ocean.

CORA: It's by the ocean.

PUPIL: It's Hawaii!

CORA: Do you think it's Hawaii?

PUPILS: Yes. No.

DAVID: It could be Banff.

CORA: Banff?

KEVIN: It could be B.C.?

CORA: B.C. What would make you think it's B.C., Kevin?

KEVIN: The mountains.

CORA: The mountains. Very good! This is downtown Vancouver in British Columbia. Where Kevin said - B.C. Would you see this (indicating Picture 12) if you were driving around our city?

PUPILS: No.

CORA: How many of you would? Are we within driving distance of the mountains? Hands down. This is mountain country (referring to Picture 12). Do the buildings seem like those you would see in the mountains where you have driven? Is it like around Banff or Jasper? Look, just look, and think if it is like Banff or Jasper.

How many of you think it could be Banff or Jasper?

MAREY: Jasper.

CORA: How many of you think that the mountains are there but the homes don't look like our type of homes? How many of you think it might be some place else?

SHAUNA: I think it's the Rockies.

CORA: Okay. It's someplace else. It's in Switzerland. Let's have a look on our world map. Here it is. Have you seen a neighbourhood like this? (Picture 11.) How many of you think that we couldn't get into our car and just drive to it in a day or two?

PUPILS: (Uncertain)

This neighbourhood is in a place called Newfoundland.

RHONDA: I've been there. It's like California.

CORA: Now, I want to show you some other pictures in a minute, but what is the most important part of a neighbourhood? What is the most important thing in a neighbourhood? What makes the neighbourhood?

LESLEY: Houses.

CORA: Just houses?

RHONDA: People

CORA: Pam! What do you think is important in a neighbourhood?

PAM: People.

SCOTT: Shelter.

CORA: People. People make a neighbourhood. Well, do you think that the house, shelter all by itself makes the neighbourhood?

PUPILS: No.

CORA: No. The people make the neighbourhood. People living in the same area make the neighbourhood. So, let's change some of this. What is one thing we have learned? What is it that makes a neighbourhood?

TODD: People.

CORA: People. (Writing on the blackboard)
People --- make --- a neighbourhood.
Are all neighbourhoods alike?

PUPILS: Yes. No.

CORA: Are all neighbourhoods alike?

PUPILS: No.

CORA: From the pictures you saw. How many of you think that they are not alike? Okay, do you think we could say that there are many different kinds of neighbourhoods?

PUPILS: Yes.

CORA: Okay (Writing on the blackboard). There --- are --- many --- different --- kinds --- of neighbourhoods.
Now, I showed you pictures of neighbourhoods in other countries. Do you think that Canada has different kinds of neighbourhoods?

PUPILS: Yes.

CORA: How many of you think Canada has different kinds of neighbourhoods?

PUPILS: (Most pupils put up their hands). Pupil comment: Gary doesn't.

CORA: Well, I don't think Gary really concentrated. Okay. People make a neighbourhood. There are many different kinds of neighbourhoods. Some of you mentioned to me that to have a neighbourhood you would have to have a park. Do you think that these people have parks (pointing to Picture 10. A Nigerian village)?

PUPILS: No.

CORA: Can't afford a park? Do you think these people have parks? (Picture 19. Downtown Vancouver and harbour)

PUPILS: Yes.

CORA: Where would their park be, Stephen?

STEPHEN: Over ther more (pointing to the picture). I can see a baseball diamond.

CORA: You can see a baseball diamond? Okay, Stephen. Do you think these people have parks (Picture 1. A prairie community)?

PUPILS: Yes.

CORA: It looks like all park. Okay, let me show you another picture. What about this (Picture 4. Shanghai sampans)?

PUPILS: No.

CORA: How many of you think they do? How many of you think they don't?

BILLY: You don't have a park on a boat.

CORA: You can't have a park on a boat. Hands up if you think these people have a park. Hands down if you think they don't. To live in a neighbourhood do you have to have a park?

PUPILS: No.

CORA: Is it nice to have a park?

PUPILS: Yes.

CORA: Yes. Okay. (Reading from blackboard.) People make a neighbourhood. There are many different kinds of neighbourhoods. Okay. I want you to copy that down on a sheet of paper. We will put it in our books. Dana, will you pass out one of these please? (Sheets are distributed to each student.) Okay, copy down the heading, "What is a Neighbourhood?"

STEPHEN: Will we put in our books?

CORA: Just copy it first, Stephen. I'll give you five or ten minutes then I want to talk a little bit more.

CORA: We've looked at a lot of pictures of different kinds of neighbourhoods. We said that not all neighbourhoods were alike. The only thing that was the same about neighbourhoods was that they were made up of people. Okay. Not houses. Do houses make a neighbourhood?

PUPILS: No.

CORA: What makes a neighbourhood?

PUPIL: People.

CORA: The people in it. Just remember, these people (Picture 3. A Bedouin community) don't have a house - they have a tent. The people are part of the neighbourhood out in the desert. Right! How many of you would prefer, if you had a choice, to live in this neighbourhood? Now seriously; you would Penny? Why would you like to live in this neighbourhood?

PENNY: Because there would be lots of places to play.

SCOTT: She would have no friends.

CORA: There would be no friends there? Penny, would you be able to go and model in this neighbourhood? Would you be able to take swimming lessons in this neighbourhood?

PUPILS: No.

KELLY: You wouldn't be able to do anything but play.

CORA: How many of you think you might get bored with playing?

PUPILS: (Many put their hands up in agreement.)

CORA: How many of you think you would miss doing some of the things you do in our community?

PUPILS: (Many put their hands up in agreement.)

CORA: Okay. Hands down. Andrea said there were no schools here and you wouldn't learn very much. Where would you get your learning from in that neighbourhood?

BILLY: From your parents.

CORA: From your parents - mothers and fathers. Now, how many of you would like to live in this one? How many of you would like to live in this neighbourhood? How many of you would not like to live here? (Picture of the Rocky Mountains) What would your reasons be for not wanting to live here? You must have a reason why not. Kelly!

KELLY: Because there wouldn't be very many people.

CORA: Not too many people. Not many friends, not many houses. Cynthia!

CYNTHIA: There would be too many trees.

CORA: Too many trees. Marey!

MAREY: There would be animals and they might attack us.

CORA: Animals might attack you. Okay.

PAM: With all the trees you could get lost.

CORA: Pam thinks you could get lost. Marey too feels there would be a danger in living in this neighbourhood. Scott!

SCOTT: You could fall down.

CORA: Okay. How many of you would like to live in this neighbourhood? Why would you think you might like to live in this one, Kevin? (Aerial view of Edmonton.)

KEVIN: There are lots of people and lots of houses.

CORA: There are lots of people in Edmonton and lots of houses.

KEVIN: You could make friends.

CORA: You could make friends with the people you don't know. Shane!

SHANE: There are lots of schools.

CORA: You think there would be schools in this neighbourhood. Yes. Okay. How many of you would like to live in this neighbourhood? How many of you would not like to live here? Stephen! Why would you like to live here? (Picture 3. A Bedouin community.)

STEPHEN: Because there is lots of sand.

CORA: And sand is important to you. Okay. If you had to make a choice, Stephen . . . do you think these people look as though they had bicycles?

PUPILS: No.

CORA: Do you think these people would go and play soccer?

PUPILS: No.

CORA: Do you think these people would go to a park?

PUPILS: No.

CORA: Stephen! Do you think you would miss riding a bicycle? And playing soccer?

TODD: If you were born there you would get used to it.

CORA: Todd made an important statement. What was his statement?

SCOTT: If you were born there you would get used to it.

CORA: Yes! Todd said if you were born there you would get used to it. Why would you possibly not like living here if you were born here? Penny!

PENNY: It would be your part of the world.

CORA: It would be your part of the world and you would be born right into it. That would be all that you would know.

STEPHEN: You wouldn't even know where the school is.

CORA: That would be very true. Okay. How many of you would like to live in this one? (Picture 13. A Prairie community) Why would you like to live in this one, Michelle?

MICHELLE: Because there is some people.

CORA: There is some people. Yes. What else? Dwayne! Why would you like to live in this place?

DWAYNE: Because it has lots of houses.

CORA: Lots of houses. It doesn't have quite as many as some of the other neighbourhoods we've looked at. Why would you like to live here, Todd?

TODD: Because it looks like Tofield.

CORA: And what is Tofield?

TODD: It's in the country.

CORA: What's important to you about Tofield and being in the country? What do you like about it?

TODD: Riding horses.

CORA: Riding horses. Billy!

BILLY: It has lots of space to play.

CORA: Lots of space to play. Billy thinks space is important. Billy, to you, space is important. Right?

BILLY: Yes.

CORA: Do you think the same things are important to all of us? We are all a little different. What might be important to me ... How many of you think that all of us think the same things are important? How many of you think that some things are important to all of us and some things we are different in? Okay. There is one thing that comes through to me from talking to you that is important. All of you think it's important to have someone to . . .

PUPILS: Play with!

CORA: How many of you think that friends are important?

PUPILS: (Most raise their hands.)

CORA: Right. All right. Okay. I think we will put our books in our desk. Now I want you to sing our song.

APPENDIX G

TRANSCRIPT OF SOCIAL STUDIES LESSON, ANNETTE

Date: October 18

Time: 2.35 p.m.

Place: Annette's classroom

ANNETTE: Being neighbours is what you call people living across the street. Even people in other provinces are what you call your neighbours; they are really your neighbouring provinces. You can have a neighbour that's another whole country. Yes. Now, in what way are you being a good neighbour in our district. Will Jodi tell us? In what way are you being a good neighbour, Jodi?

JODI: I gave some things to my friends.

ANNETTE: When you give something to your friends. How about you, Carmen?

CARMEN: When I babysit for them.

ANNETTE: When you babysit for them. How about you?

JANNE: You give them some clothes that are too small.

ANNETTE: You are also being not only a good neighbour but a good friend. Now think. In our community how do people help each other? Now, I'll give you an example: Is there anybody that would help you if something happened to you. Richard!

RICHARD: The nurse and the doctor.

ANNETTE: A nurse and a doctor. All right. In the hospital how do the people help you? Richard said a nurse and a doctor help you when you are what?

RICHARD. When you are sick.

ANNETTE: When you are sick. Paula!

PAULA: And they come and visit you.

ANNETTE: The nurses can come and visit you. The school nurse will come and make a visit to your home if there is something wrong. If you come down with chicken pox or measles or something. She comes to see you them.

BRIAN: Or you go to the doctor.

ANNETTE: You go to the doctor. How about laws? Different laws in the country. You know how we have to live by the law. What are some of the laws that you live by? Come on! Come on! Blare, you tell us. Who has anything to do with laws in your community? You know what a law is - it's a rule.

JAMIE: I know.

BLARE: Don't double.

ANNETTE: Just a minute - don't double what? Now finish your sentence.

BLARE: People.

ANNETTE: People what? All right you tell them Jamie. He doesn't seem to understand.

JAMIE: You don't double people on your bike.

ANNETTE: Right! On your bike. Jared!

JARED: You don't steal.

ANNETTE: Don't steal. What happens if something is stolen? How is the law enforced; or the rules of your city or community? How do they enforce them? Jared! What happens?

JARED: You get in trouble.

ANNETTE: You get in trouble. You certainly do. Then, who comes to straighten out the trouble?

JARED: The police.

ANNETTE: That's right. Good for you Jared.

TREVOR: When you grow up you go into jail.

ANNETTE: That's right. If you don't straighten yourself out and mend your ways. That's right Trevor and you deserve to go there too.

TREVOR: Another law is when you are on a sidewalk. You walk up the street and you come to a corner. Don't jay walk.

ANNETTE: Very good. See he is observing rules and laws. Now what would happen to you if you didn't observe laws.

ROBERT: You can get run over.

ANNETTE: And if you don't observe the laws of stealing, as Blare said; if you grow up and keep on doing that, then you are going to end up in jail. That's not a very nice place to be. Trudy!

TRUDY: And don't smash windows or anything or you will have to pay for them.

ANNETTE: Damage other people's property. That's law enforcement. All right. You all know right and wrong in your own community and in our city. How about helping old people? How do we, or your parents, or the people in the city help old people? Carmen!

CARMEN: By helping them to have a place to live.

ANNETTE: Yes, that's one way; but something else. Christine?

CHRISTINE: When the bus is crowded then you stand up and you let them sit down.

ANNETTE: Very good! Did you hear that, Trevor? No, he didn't. Richard, another way?

RICHARD: You can cook food for them.

ANNETTE: You can cook food. Where do some of our older people live?

JEFFREY: Where old ladies stay when they are real old.

ANNETTE: Where?

JEFFREY: In a foster home.

ANNETTE: Not a foster home. A senior citizens home. It isn't as if they are so very old or there's anything wrong but these people live together. They have their own suites inside a larger building but there is only elderly people living there. This is called a senior citizens home or a senior citizens lodge. Now when you go on 90th Avenue across the street there is the Ottewell Lodge, the Bethany Lodge and you find many old people. You should always be kind to the senior citizens. Now, remember, we are having our birthday celebrations in Robinwood School and we are going to have some elderly people at our school.

Now, how about rules that are enforced in the playground? During the summer time children, when you are going to the playground, who goes there? In our school grounds we have teachers on supervision but during the summer when there was no school?

MICHAEL: Playground supervisors.

ANNETTE: Playground supervisors and they are people who are paid by the city to supervise children. Can you imagine what would happen if there was no supervision at all? Jodi!

JODI: Somebody would get hurt or tease.

ANNETTE: Get hurt or tease, or the bigger ones would take it out on the little ones. Yes!

HELLEN: They could get lost.

ANNETTE: They could get lost. Right. Carmen!

CARMEN: Grab swings.

ANNETTE: Grab swings. Jamie, anything else? Yes, Everett?

EVERETT: You will have bigger ones in places where they shouldn't be - with little ones.

ANNETTE: You are absolutely right. You need a playground supervisor don't you? All right. Now that's talking about how people help each other. How do we get it? Things are pretty good aren't they? In our neighbourhood you can say, "This Robinwood community is a nice place to live in." None of you can say its really bad because there are many bad people here and many bad things happen and there's a lot of heavy traffic and so on. We don't have that here but, in what way can it still be good? How do other people help us get it better? For example, the fire department. There aren't many fires but there are some. Now the fire department doesn't want there to be any fires. That would be the best thing. Isn't that right? Yes, Jamie!

JAMIE: Because people are kind.

ANNETTE: People are kind. How about when you go to the community centre. When you go to the arena is there ever anybody there?

PUPILS: Yes.

ANNETTE: Yes. What happens there when you go skating?

JEFFREY: You can play games on the ice.

ANNETTE: Is there a timetable? Can you play hockey when you feel like it?

PUPILS: No.

ANNETTE: What happens in the arena? Trevor, you were interrupting. What happens at the arena when you go skating?

JARED: They play hockey there.

ANNETTE: All the time?

JARED: No.

ANNETTE: No. They play hockey on certain nights. All right. What else?

PAULA: There's public skating there.

ANNETTE: There's public skating. What else? Paula?

PAULA: At certain times you have to go there.

ANNETTE: They tell you what time to go there. You can't go there right at two o'clock in the afternoon when you feel like playing hockey. Yes, Trevor!

TREVOR: At the end of the year - like last year, at the end of the year - we had a skatathon.

ANNETTE: Yes, that's right.

TREVOR: We couldn't go on the ice, then.

ANNETTE: No, you couldn't go. Or, when they have a carnival. So you see there have to be rules. Now they are trying to make it better all the time so that the neighbourly community will be a still better place to live in. Now, another thing. Now about your friends or your neighbours. Suppose you went away on a holiday. Did you have pretty good friends or neighbours who would look after your house? Carmen, do you ever have anybody look after your house when you are away?

CARMEN: We do.

ANNETTE: Do you, Christine?

CHRISTINE: When we go on holidays, Jamie's mum comes over and feeds our cat.

ANNETTE: Isn't that a good neighbour? How about you, Brenda? Nobody ever looks after your house? What happened when you went to Calgary?

BRENDA: Nobody looked after it.

ANNETTE: Nobody did? Hellen, what about you?

HELLEN: When there was a flood once, our friends put all our things upstairs to dry. They took care of our house.

ANNETTE: See, when there was a flood. Now you need a neighbour. Trevor and Jamie. Yes, Jamie!

JAMIE: I had someone look after my house - my dog Duchess.

ANNETTE:	There. When you go away do you take your dog with you?
JAMIE:	No.
ANNETTE:	All right. What can you do to make your neighbourhood still better? Can everybody tell me one thing? The thing that makes their neighbourhood better - whether you are at Millwoods or whether you are at Robinwood. Michael, how about you? What can you do to make your neighbourhood better? I'd think about that.
MICHAEL:	You could help people.
ANNETTE:	You can help people. How about you, Jared?
JARED:	Not walk right across the road.
ANNETTE:	Not walk across the road except at the crossing. Brenda, how can you make your neighbourhood better.
BRENDA:	Help keep things clean.
ANNETTE:	Help clean things. Jeffrey!
JEFFREY:	Don't litter.
ANNETTE:	Don't litter. That's a very important one because everyone of you could do what Jeffrey has said.
JAMIE:	Don't break glass.
ANNETTE:	Don't break glass.
BRIAN:	Don't throw bottles on the streets.
ANNETTE:	Right. Trudy?
TRUDY:	Make good friends.
ANNETTE:	Make good friends. How about you, Everett?
EVERETT:	Make other people stop from breaking the law.
ANNETTE:	Right. Stop other people from breaking the law. Carla!
CARLA:	Don't walk upon people's grass.
ANNETTE:	Ah! That's a good one. Don't walk across people's grass. Don't cut across lawns - especially corner lots. Brenda!
BRENDA:	Don't leave things on sidewalks.

ANNETTE: Yes. Don't leave things on sidewalks like Banana peel, Jeffrey?

JEFFREY: Don't go dinging doorbells and run away.

ANNETTE: Yes. All right. Jodi!

JODI: If they want to play football they should play on their own place.

ANNETTE: Trevor, go and sit in that desk behind Paula, then you won't have anybody to disturb. Jodi, will you repeat what you said?

JODI: These boys were playing football in the place where we play.

ANNETTE: If they want to play football they should go to their own area. Those are some of the things by which you can make your neighbourhood a still better place to live in. Richard?

RICHARD: Taking care of your house.

ANNETTE: How about people taking care of your house when you are away?

RICHARD: When we go away we take our plants to our neighbours.

ANNETTE: And they look after your plants when you are away. All right. Suppose you were at home alone and it is night time. How would you feel? Linda?

LINDA: I would feel sad.

ANNETTE: You would feel sad. How would you feel?

JANNE: I would feel scared.

ANNETTE: You would feel scared. How would you feel, Jared?

JARED: I would feel scared.

ANNETTE: You would feel scared.

BRENDA: I would feel lonesome.

ANNETTE. Lonesome. Brenda!

BRENDA: I would be frightened.

ANNETTE: You would be frightened. You, Jamie?

JAMIE: I would feel good because I would scare my sisters out of their wits.

ANNETTE: All right. How about you, Trudy?

TRUDY: I would be worried.

ANNETTE: You would be worried . These are some good suggestions. How about you?

EVERETTL I would be scared.

JOHN: Nervous.

ANNETTE: And you?

PUPIL: Terrified.

ANNETTE: And you?

PUPIL: Excited.

ANNETTE: Now you have said the ways you would feel. Now, Carla, you would be scared. Some of you said that you would be scared, terrified and frightened. Now, why would you feel that way? Jodi, you told me you would be terrified. We said that this neighbourhood was a nice neighbourhood. It's a friendly neighbourhood. It's a peaceful neighbourhood. People are kind and helpful. Why would you be frightened?

JODI: Because some people kidnap.

ANNETTE: Because some people kidnap. Why would you be afraid, Jared?

JARED: Because there is lots of crime.

ANNETTE: Lots of crime. Jeffrey?

JEFFREY: I wouldn't be too afraid as I have some knives of my own.

ANNETTE: You feel you could protect yourself. Carla!

CARLA: You could leave the door open.

ANNETTE: They could take you away. The other day children, at the back of the room, I put a sign up. Block parent. Why do we need block parents? Jeannie?

JEANNIE: In case you need to go in.

ANNETTE: Yes. Now you know the sign in the window and that you can always go there. Now, we just have a few minutes, children, and I'd like to finish this up. How do you feel when you are left alone at home? At night some of you said you were excited, surprised and terrified and so on. How do you feel when you come home after school? Trevor!

TREVOR: Sad.

ANNETTE: You feel sad. How do you feel, Paula?

PAULA: Lonesome.

ANNETTE: And you Jared?

JARED: Happy.

ANNETTE: You are happy. How about you, Jodi?

JODI: I'm scared.

ANNETTE: Scared. Blare!

BLARE: Worried.

ANNETTE: Linda?

LINDA: Worried.

ANNETTE: There is one more thing I want to ask you children. In our parks . . . now you have small neighbourhood parks . . . there are trees planted and perhaps a community centre and so on. How many of you know who has planted those trees and looks after the grass? How many of you know? Do you?

PAULA: The police.

ANNETTE: No. They see that nobody cuts them down. Remember, the park belongs to everybody in our neighbourhood.

ROBERT: The city.

ANNETTE: The City Parks and Recreation - that's right. Now, how many of you have ever seen stray cats or dogs. What happens when you see a stray kitten that doesn't belong to anybody - do you take it for yourself?

PUPILS: No.

ANNETTE: What do you do with it, Carla?

CARLA: You call the pound.

ANNETTE: You call the pound. Jamie!

JAMIE: You take it to its owner.

ANNETTE: But suppose it didn't have any tag on it or address. You would call the S.P.C.A. or the pound. The pound is the short way of saying, or at least the same thing as, the S.P.C.A. The S.P.C.A. is the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals. Now, winter time is coming. Instead of seeing the poor little kitten freezing out on the street and so on, we should phone the S.P.C.A. or the pound and they'll come and pick it up. Now, sometimes people want a kitten or they want a little dog, and they'll phone them and get one from there rather than have it put to sleep. Now, children, that is all the time we have today so we'll just continue tomorrow.